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ABSTRACT

This report describes the initial stage of a 5-year longitudinal study of the labor market behavior of women between 30 and 44 years of age. Since 1967, personal interviews and questionnaires have been used to gather data relating work experiences to various social, economic, and psychological factors for a representative national sample. The sample consists of 5,083 individuals, of whom 3,456 are white. This report includes background information, labor force participation and employment patterns, occupational and geographic mobility, and work attitudes of the women in the sample as collected in mid-1967. In subsequent surveys, detailed information will be obtained on current labor force and employment status and on labor market experience and income during the period since each preceding survey. In this way a complete 5-year work history will be collected, including a record of changes in variables believed to influence labor market decisions. (BH)

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DUAL CAREERS: A longitudinal study of labor market experience of women

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Volume One
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Center for Human
Resource Research
The Ohio State University
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FOREWORD

In early 1965 the Center for Human Resource Research, under a contract with the United States Department of Labor, began the planning of longitudinal studies of the labor market experience of four subsets of the United States population: men 45 to 59 years of age, women 30 to 44 years of age, and young men and women 14 to 24 years of age.

Cost considerations dictated limiting the population covered; given that constraint, these four groups were selected for study because each faces special labor market problems that challenge policy makers. For the older male group these problems are reflected in a tendency for unemployment, when it occurs, to be of longer-than-average duration and in the fact that average annual incomes decline continuously with advancing age beyond the mid-forties. The special problems of the older group of women are those associated with re-entry into the labor force by many married women after their children no longer require their continuous presence at home. The problems of the two groups of youth, of course, are those revolving around the process of occupational choice and include both the preparation for work and the frequently difficult period of accommodation to the labor market when formal schooling has been completed.

While the more or less unique problems of each of the subject groups to some extent dictate separate orientations for the four studies, there is, nevertheless, a general conceptual framework and a general set of objectives common to all of them. Each of the four studies views the experience and behavior of individuals in the labor market as resulting from an interaction between the characteristics of the environment and a variety of demographic, economic, social, and attitudinal characteristics of the individual. Each study seeks to identify those characteristics that appear to be most important in explaining variations in several important facets of labor market experience: labor force participation, unemployment experience, and various types of labor mobility. Knowledge of this kind may be expected to make an important contribution to our understanding of the way in which labor markets operate and thus to be useful for the development and implementation of appropriate labor market policies.

For each of the four population groups described above, a national probability sample of the noninstitutional civilian population has been drawn by the Bureau of the Census. Members of each sample are being surveyed periodically over a five-year period. According to present plans, the last round of interviews will occur in 1971 for the two male groups, in 1972 for the older group of women and in early 1973 for the younger women. Reports on the first and second surveys of the older men (The Pre-Retirement Years, Volumes I and II, 1968 and 1970) and on the first survey of the male youth (Career Thresholds, Volume I, 1969) have already been published.

The present volume is based on data collected in the initial interview survey of women 30 to 44 years of age, which was conducted in mid-1967. Based exclusively on a set of tabulations that were specified in advance, it is simply a progress report on the research to date--a setting of the stage, as it were, for the longitudinal analysis to come. Moreover, even the data obtained in the initial survey frequently require more refined types of analysis than have as yet been possible. Multivariate analysis of some of the topics treated in this volume will be undertaken once we receive the computer tape from the Census Bureau, and these will become the subjects of special reports.

Both the overall study and the present report are the product of the joint effort of a great many persons, not all of whom are even known to us. The research staff of the Center has enjoyed the continuous expert and friendly collaboration of personnel of the Bureau of the Census, which, under a separate contract with the Department of Labor, is responsible for developing the samples, conducting all of the interviews, processing the data, and preparing the tabulations we have requested.

We particularly are indebted to Robert Pearl and Daniel Levine who have, in turn, served as Chief of the Demographic Surveys Division; to George Hall, who until recently served as Assistant Division Chief and worked closely with us from the inception of the project; to Marie Argana, who has been intimately involved in and has made substantial contributions to the project from its inception; and to Richard Dodge, Marvin Thompson, and Alan Jones, each of whom served for some time over the past five years as our principal point of contact with the Bureau. We also wish to acknowledge our indebtedness to Rex Pullin and his staff of the Field Division, who were responsible for the collection of the data; to David Lipscomb and his staff of the Systems Division for editing and coding the interview schedules; and to Robert Bartram, Richard Bartlett, and their associates for the computer work.

The advice and counsel of many persons in the Department of Labor have been very helpful to us both in designing the study and in interpreting its findings. Without in any way implicating them in whatever deficiencies may exist in this report, we wish to acknowledge especially the continuous interest and support of Howard Rosen, Director of the Office of Manpower Research and the valuable advice provided by Stuart Garfinkle and Jacob Schiffman, who, as our principal contacts in the Office of Manpower Research, have worked closely with us from the outset and have made numerous suggestions for improving a preliminary version of this report. Mary Dublin Keyserling, formerly Director of the Women's Bureau, and Mary N. Hilton, Deputy Director, made suggestions that were helpful in analyzing the data.

Thanks are also due to several colleagues at The Ohio State University either for discussing portions of the analysis with the authors or for reading and commenting on portions of the manuscript. These include Professors Francille Maloch, Department of Home Economics; Thomas Ostram, Department of Psychology; and Edward Ferguson and Robert Young, Center for Vocational and Technical Education.

It is very difficult to isolate the specific contributions to this report of members of the Center's staff. The planning of the report was begun under the direction of Ruth Spitz. When she left, this function was assumed by John Shea, who bore primary responsibility for editing the report. The authors of the individual chapters profited from a careful review of their work not only by each other, but also by Andrew Kohen, Gil Nestel, and Ronald Schmidt. Mr. Schmidt also prepared the technical appendices on sampling variation and on the use of the Duncan index of socioeconomic status. Ellen Mumma and Betsy Schmidt were responsible for preparing the tables and checking the manuscript, assisted in these functions by Milton Miller. In addition, Mrs. Mumma coordinated the entire effort, serving as the authors' principal liaison with the Census Bureau, the research assistants, and the secretarial staff. Dortha Gilbert, in addition to serving as secretary and office manager, incredibly functioned as a one-woman typing pool, having personally typed the several versions of text and tables.

The Ohio State University
May 1970

Herbert S. Parnes
Project Director

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CHAPTER ONE*

INTRODUCTION

This report sets the stage for a five-year study of the labor market behavior of women in the United States who were 30 to 44 years of age in 1967. On the basis of data collected periodically by personal interview or mailed questionnaire from a representative national sample drawn from the noninstitutional population, the study will analyze the relationships over time between labor force experiences and a variety of social, psychological, and economic characteristics. This first report, based on interviews conducted in mid-1967, analyzes the present status and attitudes of the women in relation to the labor market, as well as their prior work experience and their plans for the future. Subsequent reports will explore and attempt to account for the changes that occur over the five years of the study.

There are several major points of interest in examining the labor market behavior of this age cohort of women. For one thing, it is during this age span that many married women return to the labor force after their children are in school. Whether this is viewed as a second work career or merely a continuation of the first, it is important from a policy point of view to be aware of the problems of readjustment that frequently are encountered. Moreover, irrespective of departure from and reentrance to the labor market, the fact that most married women have careers as homemakers in addition to whatever roles they may play in the labor market means that their labor market decisions are likely to reflect more complex sets of forces than those of men.

Whether for these reasons or for others, there is some basis for concern about the degree to which the work skills of women are being effectively utilized. For example, there has been a decline during the past three decades in the proportion that women constitute of total employment in professional, technical, and kindred occupations.[1] In recent years, nearly a fifth of all employed women college graduates have been found working in clerical, sales, service, and operative jobs.[2] We will be interested in learning whether such apparent "underutilization" is related principally to women's work attitudes and the conditions they themselves set for their employment, to their past labor market experiences, or to other factors.

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* This chapter has been adapted from the introductory chapter of our initial report on the longitudinal study of males 45 to 59, and portions of the text are identical. See Herbert S. Parnes, Belton M. Fleisher, Robert C. Miljus, Ruth S. Spitz, and Associates, _The Pre-Retirement Years: A Longitudinal Study of the Labor Market Experience of the Cohort of Men 45 to 59 Years of Age_, Vol. I (Columbus: The Ohio State University, Center for Human Resource Research, 1968).

[1] U. S. Department of Labor, _1969 Handbook on Women Workers_ (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1969), p. 92.

I RESEARCH DESIGN

Data presented in this report were obtained through personal interviews with a national probability sample of the civilian noninstitutional population of women who, in April 1967, were 30 to 44 years of age. The sample was drawn by the Bureau of the Census from households in the 235 areas that constituted the primary sampling units (PSU's) in the experimental Monthly Labor Survey (MLS) conducted between early 1964 and late 1966.[3] In order to provide statistically reliable estimates for black women[4] and to permit a more confident analysis of differences in labor market experience between blacks and whites, the former were substantially over-represented in the sample. The sample consists of 5,083 individuals, of whom 3,456 are white. Sample cases are weighted to reflect the different sampling ratios for whites and blacks and to adjust the sample observations to independent estimates of the civilian noninstitutional population for April 1967, by color and by the three five-year age groups included in the study. As a result, absolute figures and percentages presented in the tables of this report relate to the total civilian noninstitutional population of women 30 to 44 years of age.[5]

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[2] *Ibid.*, p. 211.

[3] The Monthly Labor Survey (MLS) was designed to test a number of changes in the interview schedule for the Current Population Survey (CPS) that had been proposed as a means of refining and improving current measures of the labor force, employment, and unemployment. After two and a half years of experimentation and pretesting, the CPS schedule was amended in January 1967, and the two samples were merged, enlarging the CPS sample to 52,500 households in 449 areas. The changes were relatively minor, leaving the basic labor force concepts largely undisturbed. (See U.S. Department of Labor, *Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report of the Labor Force*, Vol. XIII, No. 8, February 1967, pp. 4-5.)

[4] At the expense of some accuracy, we are using the term "black" throughout this report to refer to the group now referred to in U. S. Government reports as "Negro and other races." In official data on the United States labor force, this category includes such groups as Indians, Chinese, and Japanese as well as Negroes. However, since Negroes constitute over 90 percent of the total category, their characteristics are, by and large, the characteristics of the total, and it is generally understood that data on "Negro and other races" are descriptive of Negroes, but not, for example, of Chinese-Americans. Our data are classified into the two color groups in the same way as the official data, but the interpretations that would in any case be drawn are made more explicit by referring in tables, as well as in the text, to all those who are not Caucasian as "black."

As in any survey based upon a sample, the data are subject to sampling error, i.e., variation attributable solely to the fact that the data emerge from a sample rather than from a complete count of the universe being examined. Since the probability of a given individual's appearing in the sample is known, it is possible to estimate approximate sampling error. Tables showing sampling errors, together with instruction for their use, appear in Appendix C.

As has been indicated, the survey on which the present report is based is the initial stage of a longitudinal study covering a five-year period. In each subsequent survey, the first two of which already have been conducted,[6] detailed information will be obtained on current labor force and employment status, and on labor market experience and income during the period since each preceding survey. Thus, at the end of the five years a complete work history for the period will have been accumulated, along with a record of changes in a number of other variables which are hypothesized to influence labor market decisions: e.g., health, marital and family status, ages of children, number of dependents, child-care arrangements, education and training, major expenditures, attitudes toward work and job, and future work plans.

A longitudinal population study has two essential characteristics. First, it involves measurement or description of one or more characteristics of the same group of individuals at two or more points in time.[7] Second, it involves analysis of relationships among the characteristics of these individuals at different times or of changes in one or more of their characteristics over time.

It should be noted that whether a study is longitudinal is independent of whether data are collected periodically. Making an annual survey of a group of individuals does not in itself assure a longitudinal study; nor is such a study precluded by the fact that only a single survey is conducted. If work experience data are collected annually from a sample of individuals over a five-year period solely for the purpose of ascertaining the total amount of unemployment or the total number of job changes experienced during the period by the respondents, the study is clearly not longitudinal in terms of the definition offered above. On the other hand, if a single survey collects five-year work histories and if analysis of the data includes comparisons between the labor force status of the respondents in year n and their employment status in subsequent years, or between unemployment experience in year n and job mobility in year n-1, the study is longitudinal even though it does not involve repeated surveys.[8]

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[5] For a more detailed description of the sampling procedure, see Appendix B.

[6] A mail survey was conducted in May of 1968 and an interview survey in May of 1969. Additional interview surveys are planned for 1971 and 1972.

[7] Dankward Kodlin and Donovan J. Thompson, An Appraisal of the Longitudinal Approach to Studies of Growth and Development (monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Inc., Vol. XXIII, No. 1, 1958), pp. 8, 25.

Although a longitudinal analysis covering a five-year period may thus be made on the basis of a single survey at the end of the period, there are three major advantages in our plan of conducting periodic surveys. First, some types of variables cannot conceivably be measured retrospectively. If a characteristic that is subject to change over time can be ascertained only by an objective measurement (or subjective judgment) made by someone other than the respondent, retrospective measurement of that variable is obviously ruled out.[9] Many attitudinal measures (e.g., "How do you feel about your job?") fall into this category.

A second advantage of periodic surveys is that even in the case of information that from a purely logical standpoint could be collected retrospectively, validity of the data is frequently impaired by the respondent's faulty recall. The shorter the time period covered by detailed work histories, the more accurate are the responses likely to be, since respondents are likely to forget jobs of short duration or short periods of unemployment when they are queried about work experience over a long period of time.[10] Data on annual income are another case in point. These considerations suggest that even if longitudinal analysis were not contemplated (that is, if the study proposed merely to analyze cumulative labor market experience over a five-year period) there would be distinct advantages in collecting the data periodically.

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[8] For an example of a rather simple retrospective longitudinal study of unemployment, see University of Michigan Survey Research Center, Persistent Unemployment, 1957-1961 (Kalamazoo: The W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 1962). The present report, based only on the initial interview survey, also involves longitudinal analysis in the same sense, since the current labor force status of the respondent is analyzed in the light of her previous work experience.

[9] It is no accident that the most extensive experience with longitudinal studies has been in the field of health, since subjects cannot possibly be expected to be able to report, for example, what their blood pressure was five years ago.

Finally, periodic surveys permit the study of certain methodological problems in labor market research that could not be approached by a single survey. The reliability of response to questions about work experience can be tested by asked questions in the final survey that can be checked against responses in previous surveys. As another example, the validity of hypothetical questions of attitudinal measures as predictors of actual labor market behavior can be tested only through periodic surveys of the same individuals.

In the longitudinal analysis of our data over the five-year period, we draw a distinction between "static" and "dynamic" variables. The former are those characteristics of the respondents that remain constant throughout the five-year period. Obvious examples are color, date and place of birth, area of residence at age 15, and occupation of mother at that time. Important variables in this category are those relating to work experience prior to the initial (1967) survey. For the most part, information on the "static" variables has been obtained in the 1967 survey reported here, although we are, of course, not precluded from adding variables of this kind in subsequent interviews.

The "dynamic" variables include all those subject to change for each respondent during the course of the study. In addition to measures of current labor force and employment status, annual work experience, and yearly income, this category includes some of the variables whose effect on labor market behavior is to be studied. Examples are marital status, number and ages of children, health of the respondent and her husband, extent of occupational training, and a set of attitudinal measures.

Reports on each of the follow-up surveys will focus primarily on changes in labor market status from 1967 as well as from the year preceding the year in question. Explanations for such changes will be sought not only in terms of the static variables, but also in terms of changes in those dynamic variables which theoretically are expected to influence labor market behavior and plans. An example of the former is the hypothesis that women with high educational attainment who have been employed during most of their adult lives are more likely to be in the labor force in succeeding years than those who have been primarily full-time homemakers since leaving school. An example of the latter is the expected increase in labor force participation by respondents during the year after the youngest child in the household attains age six.

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[10] By comparing data collected in 1959 on unemployment experience during the previous 24 months with data collected in 1958 covering the previous 12 months, the University of Michigan Survey Research Center has estimated that the former understated by about 20 percent the number of families affected by unemployment during the two-year period. University of Michigan Survey Research Center, Persistent Unemployment, 1957-1961, p. 13.

II CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The most general explanation that can be offered for a person's labor market activity is that it reflects an interaction between the characteristics of the individual in question and those of his environment. Consider, for example, the length of time it takes a married woman to find a job after having been fully engaged in homemaking activity for some time. This depends in part upon a number of characteristics that determine her attractiveness to potential employers; e.g., education, skills and experience, health and physical fitness, color, initiative, appearance, marital status, and age. Some of these may be functionally relevant to job performance; others may reflect employers' hiring preferences that have little or nothing to do with performance.

A second set of "personal" characteristics affecting employment prospects operates to determine the range of possible employers to whose attention the woman is likely to come. For example, the relative importance she attaches to her role of job seeker (and, hopefully, employee) versus that of mother-wife-homemaker may influence her job search behavior. Her own circle of friends and acquaintances and those of her family, particularly if they endorse her desire to work, may be instrumental in landing a job. Her knowledge of alternative employment opportunities is important, as are the self-assurance and initiative with which she conducts her search for work, and her willingness to broaden this search outside her neighborhood and into occupations and industries in which she may have had no previous experience. Third, her hierarchy of preferences for different types of work, types of establishments, hours and other conditions of employment, and different types of economic and noneconomic rewards affects not only the kinds of work that she will seek, but also the range of specific jobs that she will consider.

Finally, the woman's economic circumstances also condition the likelihood of her employment. The extent of her own and her family's financial resources, her access to income from sources other than her own employment, and the extent and character of her own and her family's financial obligations, including the obligation to support others, all affect her "staying power," and, thus, the requirements that she establishes for an acceptable job.

The woman's labor market experience clearly depends upon environmental factors as well as upon her own characteristics. For any given set of personal characteristics, unemployment upon reentrance to the labor force may be expected to be of longer duration in a depressed than in a buoyant economy. Similarly, the degree of concentration in the local labor market of industries and occupations that normally employ large complements of women workers as well as the availability of job opportunities relative to her own qualifications are important factors. Employers' personnel policies and the policies of trade unions likewise help to determine how readily she will be able to find a job.

Government policies also play a role in her ability to accommodate to the labor market. The effectiveness of the public employment service and the availability of public training and retraining programs and their conditions of eligibility are illustrative of factors that can affect the employment prospects of a woman reentering the labor force. For a woman who is the mother of young children, the availability of public child care services may be particularly important in removing constraints upon the type and location of work for which she can make herself available, and thus in improving her prospects of employment.

The illustrations of the preceding several paragraphs can be generalized to all facets of labor market behavior. Whether interest centers on labor force participation, mobility, or career achievement, the explanation for observed patterns of behavior or experience is to be sought in the relationship between individual and environmental characteristics. An individual makes choices and acts in ways that are conditioned by the total complex of his characteristics. His behavior is also conditioned by his perception of the environment; and even if he is insensitive to or misinterprets environmental factors, they can make his choices irrelevant, or, what may be even worse, "punish" him for them. The environment, in other words, plays a dual role in explaining labor market behavior: it conditions the values and perceptions of the individual and therefore the choices that he makes; and it imposes real constraints upon his action.

It is clear that there is a time dimension to both individual and environmental variables. In the case of the individual, almost every important characteristic affecting a choice or an action in the labor market, and in fact the very decision about whether to participate in the labor market at all, is itself a product, at least in part, of other characteristics of the individual and of the environment at an earlier period of time. For example, a worker's skills and knowledge are a result of his past education, training, and work experience. His educational attainment, in turn, depends upon such factors as native endowment, early cultural influences, parents' financial resources, and the availability of educational opportunities. The nature of the socioeconomic environment at a given moment in time is also a function of its past. Moreover, attitudes of individuals that condition their behavior are in substantial measure a reflection of earlier environmental influences.

In the present study, for example, although all of the respondents lived through the dislocations of World War II, the 30-year-olds were barely entering school at its start, while many of the oldest in the group were at work through most of it.

Of course, no single study can be expected to deal with all of the complex factors that are implied by the foregoing paragraphs. This study concentrates mainly on characteristics relating to the supply side of the labor market. In general, we seek to determine the characteristics of women that are important in accounting for variations in their labor market experience and their plans for the future. Environmental variables, however, are by no means ignored. For example, three characteristics of the local areas covered in the study are used as independent variables: size of labor force in the area, level of unemployment, and an index of demand for female labor.

III THE VARIABLES[11]

Dependent Variables

Labor force participation, various types of mobility, and unemployment are the major dependent variables of the study, although the last of these is given scant attention in the present report. A number of other factors that accompany or influence women's employment are also explored as dependent variables: e.g., attitudes toward job and toward work, modes of transportation to work, and child-care arrangements.

Labor force participation Several measures of labor force participation are used. One of these is based upon the conventional definition of labor force status, which depends on the individual's activity in the calendar week preceding the time of the interview.[12] The interview questions (Items 1-4) and the coding procedures used for classifying respondents are identical to those currently used in the Current Population Survey.[13] A second measure is the total number of weeks in the labor force in calendar year 1966. For each respondent, this was ascertained by adding the number of weeks that she had worked and the number of weeks she was seeking work or was on a job layoff during the year (Items 34-36).

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[11] The item number in parentheses after each variable described in this section refers to the relevant question of the interview schedule, which is reproduced in Appendix F.

[12] For convenience and clarity we refer to this week as the "survey week," although in technical Census parlance it is the "reference" week.

[13] For a detailed set of definitions, see U. S. Department of Labor, Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report of the Labor Force, Vol. XIII, No. 8, February 1967, pp. 3-13.

While this measure has the advantage of displaying more variation than does labor force status in a single week, it is not based upon as refined a set of measurements as current labor force status, because no careful probes are made to assess the individual's precise activity in each week of the year. A third measure of participation is the number of hours the respondent usually works per week on primary job (Item 9b), which we frequently use to distinguish full-time from part-time labor force activity. Finally, there is a measure of past labor force attachment--years worked as a percent of potential labor force exposure. This measure is calculated for the period since the respondent ceased attending school full time by taking the number of years in which she worked at least six months as a proportion of the total number of years in that period (Items 48, 51, and 54; or Items 48 and 56; or Item 59; or Items 61 and 64).

While the aforementioned measures relate to the actual activity of the women, there are also measures of their propensity toward future labor force participation. Employed respondents were asked how long they planned to continue working at their current jobs and what they planned to do thereafter (Item 20); they were also asked what they would do if they were to lose their jobs permanently (Item 16). Those not currently employed were asked what they expected to be doing in five years (Items 29 and 33). If currently out of the labor force, they were asked to respond to a series of questions posing a hypothetical job offer (Items 30a and 32a).

Unemployment Employment status in the week preceding the interview is defined and measured just as it is in the CPS (Items 1-4). For respondents unemployed according to this definition, the duration of that spell of unemployment also was obtained. As in the case of labor force status, an additional measure of unemployment is the number of weeks during 1966 that the individual was on layoff or looking for work (Items 34-36). This measure has the same advantage and disadvantage relative to the measure based on current status as described above for the measure of labor force participation based on a year's activity.

Mobility Respondents were asked to identify several jobs (defined as a continuous period of employment with a given employer) held during their working careers. Each woman, regardless of marital and family status, was asked about current job (or the most recent, for those currently unemployed or out of the labor force) (Item 6). Each married respondent who had had children was asked about three additional jobs: the longest job held between the time she left school full time and her first marriage (Item 47); the longest job held between the time of first marriage and the birth or acquisition of first child (Item 50); and the longest job held since the birth of first child (Item 53). Married respondents who had never had children were asked to identify two jobs in addition to current (or last) job: the longest held between school and first marriage (Item 47), and the longest held since that marriage (Item 55). Never-married respondents who had never had children were asked about two jobs in addition to their current or last employment:

the first job after leaving school that lasted at least six months (Item 57), and the longest job ever held (Item 58). Finally, each never-married respondent who had had children was asked to identify two jobs in addition to her current or last one: the longest job held between the time she left school and the birth or acquisition of first child (Item 60), and the longest job held since the birth of that child (Item 63). For all jobs, questions were asked which permit classification of the job according to occupation, industry, class of worker, length of service, location, whether part-time or full-time, and (except for current job) reason for leaving.

A number of mobility measures have been derived from these work history questions. For example, the character of occupational movement among married women and the influence of changes in marital and family status upon this movement are measured by comparing occupational assignments in job before marriage and current job. Occupational shifts are analyzed not only in terms of the Census three-digit categories, but also according to direction and magnitude of change in the Duncan index of socioeconomic status,[14] thus permitting the measurement of vertical mobility.

Another mobility measure involves the propensity to change jobs in the future, based on reaction to a hypothetical job offer. All employed respondents were asked how much they would have to be paid in order to be willing to take a job involving identical work with another employer in the local labor market (Item 15). By relating their responses to their current wage rates, respondents have been classified according to their relative willingness to make interfirm job shifts.

Attitude toward employment of mothers, and other dependent variables An item was designed to measure the views of respondents about the employment of women with young children. All respondents were asked how they felt about a married woman with children between the ages of 6 and 12 taking a full-time job outside the home under three different conditions: if absolutely necessary for financial reasons; if she wants to work and her husband agrees; and, if she wants to work but her husband "does not particularly like the idea." The respondent was asked to indicate whether, under each condition, she thought it was definitely all right, probably all right, definitely not all right, or probably not all right for such a woman to work (Item 66). Scores from this item are treated both as a dependent and as an explanatory variable in this report. Several other variables, such as job and work attitudes (Items 10-14) are also handled both as independent variables that influence labor force participation and mobility, and as dependent, in turn, on other explanatory variables.

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[14] See Otis Dudley Duncan, "A Socioeconomic Index for All Occupations," in Albert J. Reiss, Jr., et al., Occupations and Social Status (New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1961), Chapter 6 and Appendix B. Although the Duncan index was constructed as a measure of the status of men, a statistical test was performed which indicates that the index also is a rather good measure of the desirability of occupations held by women. The test is discussed in Appendix D.

Explanatory Variables

From the conceptual framework outlined earlier in this chapter, it is evident that a great many specific attributes of a woman are likely to have a bearing on her decision about entering the labor force, and on her labor market activity and experience. While we cannot, of course, claim to have included all of the relevant variables in this study, we do have a large number of important ones. Nevertheless, we are aware of limitations that exist in the measurement instruments for some of the characteristics with which we are concerned. For example, we had originally planned to include in the interview schedule a number of formal psychological and sociological scales, since much of the variation among individuals in mobility and in other facets of labor market behavior undoubtedly stems from differences in personality, temperament, and values that have hardly begun to be explored in labor market research. Although it was not possible to administer such scales in the initial survey, at least limited use of them will be made before the study is completed. For example, the third survey (1969) will provide a measure of alienation based upon an abbreviated version of the Rotter Internal-External Scale.[15] In the meantime, we have relied in this report on simpler attitudinal measures with high face validity. It is worth noting that there have been few, if any, studies involving a national sample that have combined as many attitudinal measures with such detailed work status and work experience data as are included here.

In some cases, of course, considerations of cost or feasibility have prevented us from obtaining the kind and amount of information we should have liked. For example, it is clear that the health and physical condition of a woman may be a powerful determinant of her labor market experience, affecting not only her "choice" to work or not to work, whether to work part-time or full-time, and what kinds of jobs to consider, but also influencing her acceptability to employers. Our original hope was to obtain detailed and specific information on the respondent's health status. In reviewing the experience in other surveys, it became apparent that to obtain confident and detailed descriptions of health status would require an inordinately long sequence of questions. As a result, we settled for a brief series of questions in which the respondent was asked to rate her health and physical condition, to indicate to what extent and for how long health problems imposed constraints on her activity, and to describe briefly the nature of the limitation.

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[15] See Julian B. Rotter, "Generalized Expectancies for Internal Versus External Control of Reinforcement," Psychological Monographs: General and Applied, Vol. LXXX, No. 1, 1966, pp. 1-28.

In short, we are not necessarily satisfied either with the number of variables used in the analysis or with the definition and measurement of some of them. However, we have included as many and have developed each as well as our ingenuity would permit, given the constraints referred to above. The main explanatory variables are described briefly in the paragraphs that follow.

Formative influences The home and community influences operating during a woman's youth are assumed to play an important role in shaping her values and behavior as an adult. While not all of these influences can be described with precision by women in their thirties and forties, we included in the questionnaire a number of items in which faulty recall is not likely to present a major problem. *Age*, for example, reflects both duration of possible labor force exposure and differences in the character of the environment at an earlier time in the life cycle. For example, the oldest women in the sample were teenagers during the depressed thirties, while the youngest reached maturity during the prosperous fifties. *Race or color* frequently stands for a set of distinctive expectations on the part of the larger society as well as differential access to opportunity. *Nationality* (Items 110, 114, 115) and *residence at age 15* (Item 116) (rural, urban, suburban, etc.) are used as measures of early cultural influences. *Occupation of father (or head of household) when the respondent was 15 years old* (Item 118a) and *father's educational attainment* (Item 118b) are indicators of the socioeconomic status of the family when the respondent was in her mid-teens. *Mother's occupation when the respondent was age 15* (Item 119a) and *mother's educational attainment* (Item 119) may reflect something of maternal aspirations and role patterns in the respondent's home during her formative years. *Family structure at age 15* (Item 117) differentiates between respondents who were reared with both parents present, and those whose early home was "broken" to some degree. *Age at first marriage* (Items 40, 41) and *age at birth of first child* (Item 46) both mark the assumption of responsibilities which frequently precipitate labor force and other forms of labor mobility, such as geographical movement.

Marital and family characteristics At least for most women, there is no doubt that marital status and family size, the ages of the respondent's children, and associated feelings of security and responsibility are important in determining her labor market activity. There is usually less economic pressure to work on women whose husbands live in the same household than on women in other marital status categories, particularly if the husband is regularly employed and in good health. The presence of small children is likely to limit a woman's labor market activity (e.g., to part-time work), because of a desire or need to care for her children at home. On the other hand, if she is the head of a household, if her husband is in poor health, or if she has children in high school or college, she may be more likely to be in the labor force. In order to explore relationships of this kind, we use *marital status of the respondent* and *age distribution of children living at home* (Item 124) to describe family structure. *Number of children* (Items 42, 43, 44, and 123b) is a related variable, and *number of marriages* (Item 39) may indicate past changes in family responsibilities. The extent of existing familial obligations is measured by *whether the respondent is head of a household*; *number of dependents* (Item 120); *college expectations for children* (Item 128); *number of children in college* (Items 123b, 125, 126); *status (living or deceased) of parents and parents-in-law* (Item 113); and *need, cost, and type of child care arrangements required for respondent to work* (Items 21, 26, 31). Potential and actual labor force participation by other family members is measured by their *educational attainment* (Items 123b, 129, 130); their *labor force activity* (weeks worked per year, hours worked per week, and occupation) (Items 123b, 131, 132, 133); and their *health and physical condition* (Items 74, 75, 76).

Knowledge and skills Present and past *occupations* describe to some extent the skills and vocational knowledge that women actually have applied in the labor market. *Educational attainment* (Item 77) is a more fundamental measure of potential. *Type of high school curriculum* (Item 78a) taken and *acquisition of typing and shorthand skills* (Item 78) were ascertained for respondents who had attended high school; and *field of study in college* (Item 77c) was asked of those with three or more years of college. In addition, there is information on types, duration, and use made of *training outside regular school* (Items 79, 80, 81); *professional or trade certification* (Item 83); *other occupations that the respondent can perform* (Item 65); and *training plans* (Item 82).

Health and physical condition Two measures of health and physical condition are used. *Self-rating of health* (Item 73) asks the respondent to indicate whether her health is "excellent," "good," "fair," or "poor" in comparison with that of other women her age. Respondents were also asked whether they had any *activity limitations imposed by health problems or physical conditions* (Items 71, 72) that either prevent their working or limit the amount or kind of work they can do. If so, the *nature and duration of the limitation* (Item 72) are described.

Financial characteristics A woman's financial condition and that of her family will influence her labor market behavior and her attitudes about employment in many respects. Among the more important variables are *current wage rate* (Item 9); *family income less respondent's earnings* (Items 94-106); *net assets* (Items 86-93); and *home ownership* (Item 84). Expenditure during the year preceding the survey are measured by *number of consumer durables purchased* (Item 107); and *other major expenditures* (Items 108, 109). *Cost of transportation to work* (Item 8d) and *cost of child care* (Item 21c) are additional financial variables of importance.

Attitudinal variables Several work and job attitudes as well as feelings about household and leisure activities were explored. All respondents except those out of the labor force were asked about their *commitment to work* (Items 14, 28). That is, whether they would continue to work if they (and their husbands) somehow acquired enough money to live comfortably without working. A second question dealt with *motivation to work* (Items 13, 27); all respondents were queried whether they believed good wages or liking the work was the more important thing about a job. Finally, all employed respondents were asked to discuss the factors liked and disliked about their jobs (Items 11, 12). Responses to these questions permit us to discriminate between those women who focus on "intrinsic" factors, i.e., those related to the nature of the work, and those who emphasize "extrinsic" factors, i.e., aspects of satisfaction that are not inherent in the particular type of work performed.

Another attitudinal measure is the degree of satisfaction with current job (Item 10). Each employed respondent was asked to state whether she liked her job very much, liked it somewhat, disliked it somewhat, or disliked it very much. Attachment to present employer (Item 15) is a variable constructed from responses to a question relating to a hypothetical job offer in the community.

The attitudes of married women toward household and leisure time activities, and perceptions of their husbands' feelings about their working may influence the labor market decisions of women. Attitude toward keeping house (Item 69a) is based on responses to a query concerning how such a woman felt about keeping house in her own home. Responses were categorized from very favorable to very unfavorable. A related question on attitude toward child care (Item 69b) was asked, and responses were classified in a similar manner. Preferences in leisure time activities (Item 70) were examined by asking all married respondents how they spent most of their time when not occupied with housework or with paid employment. The perceived attitude of husband toward respondent's employment (Item 67) was determined by asking each married respondent in the labor force how her husband felt about her working--whether he liked it very much, liked it somewhat, did not care either way, disliked it somewhat, or disliked it very much. All married women outside the labor force were asked a similar question concerning how they thought their husbands would feel about their working (Item 68).

Labor market variables The variables describing the characteristics of labor market in which each respondent resides have already been mentioned. Size of local labor force is the number of persons, as of 1967, in the civilian labor force of the primary sampling unit (PSU) in which the respondent lives. In most cases, these areas are standard metropolitan statistical areas (SMSA's) or individual counties. Local unemployment rates have also been estimated for 1967. Local areas have been classified into three categories: those with low unemployment rates (less than 3.0 percent); those with moderate unemployment rates (3.1 to 5.0 percent), and those with high unemployment rates (5.1 percent or more). A third variable, index of demand for female labor, is based upon the presence (or absence) in the area of industries that normally provide above-average employment opportunities for women.

IV PLAN OF ANALYSIS

In the following chapters, we rely completely on tabular analysis in seeking explanations for variation in labor market and related behavior. While we would prefer to have included results of both tabular and more refined, multivariate analysis, timely reporting has argued in favor of the simpler approach. Later reports in this series will make use of more sophisticated and more powerful statistical techniques, once data processing delays are overcome.

Color is used as a major control variable throughout the report, since we are particularly interested in exploring the differences in experiences between white and black women and in contributing to a better understanding of the sources of disadvantage of the latter. For the cohort under investigation, marital and family status is another characteristic which is systematically related to labor market activity. Moreover, this variable is frequently correlated with other variables, and, thus, must be controlled statistically when one seeks to uncover a relationship between some characteristics (e.g., health) and a facet of labor market activity (e.g., labor force participation rate). Therefore, most of the tables either control for marital and family status or, what serves the same purpose, relate only to a portion of the universe of adult women 30 to 44 years of age--e.g., married, husband present. In effect, then, our tables tend to be four- or five-way classifications, such as in Chapter 3 where labor force participation during 1966 is classified by marital status, self-rating of health, and color (Table 3.2). Such a table permits us to ascertain whether each of these explanatory variables is associated with participation independently of the others.

However, frequently even this degree of detail is not enough, since there may be another variable that is known (or suspected) to be correlated with both the dependent variable and one or more of the independent variables. For example, in Chapter 3 we attempt to ascertain whether a woman's survey week participation rate is related to self-rating of health. Since it is known that ages of children and health are related and that there is also a relationship between the former and participation, it is necessary to examine the relationship between self-rating of health and participation _within_ age-of-children categories, i.e., to control by the age distribution of children living at home. The relevant table (3.2), therefore, singles out _married women_ and indicates whether a relation between _self-rating of health_ and participation prevails within each _color-ages of children_ category--a total of five variables. Generally speaking, where there is reason to suppose that two or more explanatory variables associated with some aspect of labor market behavior are intercorrelated and systematically related to the dependent variable, the relation of one of the variables is investigated controlling for the other in the manner illustrated above. However, it is clearly impossible to carry this process much beyond what has been described. More complex tables would not only be very cumbersome, but, what is more serious, the small number of sample cases underlying the various entries in the table would make the sampling error so large as to preclude any confident interpretation. Nevertheless, the results of the tabular analysis should go far toward identifying the most influential variables for inclusion in subsequent multivariate analysis of some of the subjects treated in this report.

The following chapter contains a description of several important demographic, socioeconomic, and attitudinal characteristics of the women in the sample. These characteristics, such as marital and family status, health of respondents and other family members, educational attainment, and financial condition, are among the important explanatory variables that are used in subsequent chapters to account for differences in labor market behavior within our cohort of women 30 to 44 years of age. Attitudes toward work and home are also examined to determine the relationship between these and other variables which are hypothesized to influence labor market activity.

Chapter 3 investigates selected determinants of labor force participation both currently and in the past. The correlates of labor force attachment as measured by future labor force plans, are also examined. The entire analysis concentrates on the relationship between participation and a number of variables unique to the present survey, since most of the well-known statistical associations between participation and traditional explanatory variables (e.g., educational attainment) are confirmed by data from this survey. Chapter 4 deals with several important characteristics of women's employment, such as occupational assignments, wages, and length of service with present employer. Part-time employment patterns, costs of transportation to work, and child-care arrangements are also examined.

Lifetime occupational and geographical mobility patterns are explored in Chapter 5, which is designed to ascertain the way in which social class background, formative family influences, and education affect the kind of work women perform. Occupational changes between jobs held early in work careers and those held more recently are described, and factors associated with upward and downward movements are analyzed. Chapter 6 concentrates on a number of work and job attitudes of the women in our sample. Relationships between job satisfaction (and dissatisfaction) and other attitudinal variables are described. Completing the chapter, a model of job attachment is presented and its correlates explored. Finally, the findings and conclusions drawn from the study--including possible policy implications--are summarized in Chapter 7.

V A NOTE ON TABLES

The tables in this report have a number of characteristics that deserve some comment at this point. In a study of this kind, interest generally focuses on relative rather than absolute magnitudes, e.g., the proportions of white women and of black women who have a given characteristic, rather than their numbers. Accordingly, data in virtually all tables are presented in terms of percentages. In all cases, however, the base of each percentage is shown, so that its statistical reliability can be estimated. A reader interested in knowing an absolute magnitude, therefore, can estimate it readily by multiplying the relevant percentage by its base.

In calculating percentage distributions, cases for which no information was obtained are excluded from the total.[16] All percentage distributions, therefore, should add up to 100 percent; when they do not, it is because of rounding. It should be observed, however, that when absolute numbers do not add up to the indicated total, the difference is attributable, unless otherwise noted, to cases for which no information was obtained, as well as to rounding. Percentages in virtually all tables have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage point. To record them to the nearest tenth would clutter the tables unnecessarily and create the impression of a degree of accuracy that does not in fact exist, since to be statistically significant, differences in percentages in this study generally have to be at least several percentage points.

With rare exceptions, our tables involve at least three-way cross-classifications in which color is almost always one of the variables. Generally, our purpose is to ascertain how an independent variable interacts with all that the color variable represents (e.g., systematic discrimination in educational and employment opportunity) to "explain" some aspect of labor market behavior. For example, is educational attainment related to unemployment experience in the same way for black women as for white? Since we are more interested in this type of question than in the relation between two variables for the total population irrespective of color, most of our tables omit the totals for blacks and whites combined. It should be mentioned that because of the overwhelming numerical importance of the whites, the distribution of the total population by any variable resembles very closely the distribution of the whites.

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[16] This amounts to assuming that those who did not respond to a particular question do not differ in any relevant respect from those who did, a reasonably safe assumption for most variables. Moreover, in most cases the number of nonresponses is small. In Appendix E we present for each major variable in the study the total number of persons in the relevant universe and the number and proportion of persons for whom no information was obtained. Nonresponse rates exceed 10 percent in only a few variables.

Percentages are shown in nearly all table cells no matter how small the base, and, thus, no matter how statistically unreliable the percentage may be. As a result, there are instances in which the data appear to show a relationship which almost certainly is not real. In our interpretations, of course, we are mindful of sampling error, and as a rough rule of thumb we are inclined not to say anything about percentages based upon fewer than 50 sample cases, for sampling error in such cases may be very high. For example, the standard error of a percentage in the neighborhood of 50 is about 10 percentage points when the base is 50 sample cases; for percentages near 5 or 95, the standard error is about 4 percentage points. The reader who wishes to observe the same cautions in interpreting the tables should keep in mind that the "blown up" population figure corresponding to 50 sample cases is approximately 225 thousand for whites and about 65 thousand for blacks.

A final note concerns table titles. Our sample of women 30 to 44 years of age was drawn so as to be representative of the noninstitutional population of the United States in that age group. Sampling ratios for various parts of the universe, however, vary somewhat. While numbers presented in tables are universe estimates for women 30 to 44 in 1967, we refer to them simply as "respondents." When no restrictive adjectives are added, it should be understood that the numbers in the tables refer to "blown-up" estimates for the universe of women 30 to 44 years of age.

CHAPTER TWO*

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

The interrelationships among a number of demographic, socioeconomic, and attitudinal characteristics of women 30 to 44 years of age are the subject of this chapter. First, there is an overview of the marital status of the respondents and the compositon of their families now. This is followed by a section on the characteristics of their families of origin. The third section reports the state of health of the respondents and other members of their families and the level of the respondents' skills as measured by their education and training. Income and expenditure patterns are examined in the fourth section. The final section explores attitudes toward labor market activity as well as toward child-care and homemaking activities.

Most of these characteristics are of some interest in their own right as descriptions of the group under study. But more important, since each of them is hypothesized to influence some aspect of women's labor market behavior, it is necessary to understand the ways in which these variables are related to age and color and to each other. That is, the present chapter examines the intercorrelations among the variables that in subsequent chapters will be used to "explain" the labor market behavior and experience of the women under consideration.

I MARITAL HISTORY AND FAMILY COMPOSITION

The noninstitutional civilian population of women between the ages of 30 and 44 in the middle of 1967 consisted of approximately 17.7 million persons of whom about 88 percent were white. Within the cohort, white women were slightly older, on the average, than black women. The latter were equally distributed among the three five-year age groups, while the proportion of whites in the youngest group was 5 percentage points lower than in the oldest group (Table 2.1).

Current Marital Status

The overwhelming majority of women 30 to 44 years of age are married and live with their husbands (Table 2.2). This is true for 86 percent of white women; only 5 percent report having never been married and 9 percent are widowed, divorced, or not living with their husbands.

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* This chapter was written by Ruth S. Spitz.

Among black women, however, those married and living with their husbands account for only two-thirds of the total; 7 percent have never been married, 5 percent are widowed, and a fifth are divorced or not living with their husbands. The greatest intercolor difference is among those whose marital status is reported as "separated." This category accounts for only 2 percent of white women but 14 percent of black women, and the difference is particularly large among women in their thirties. Marital status varies only negligibly with age among white women in this cohort. For black women, however, age variations are greater: there is a fairly pronounced increase in the incidence of widowhood with age, and women in their early forties are less likely to be separated than those in their thirties. The proportion of never-married black women is greatest in the youngest age group, but smaller in the intermediate than in the oldest age category.

Table 2.1 Age by Color

(Percentage distribution)

Age	WHITES	BLACKS
30-34	31	33
35-39	33	34
40-44	36	33
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	15,559	2,107

Age Composition of Children in Household

It is well established that the extent of labor market activity of women is profoundly influenced by the age distribution of the children under their care. It is important, therefore, to investigate the relation of this variable to the age, color, and marital status of the women under consideration. For purposes of this analysis, only children living in the household are considered. All women are classified into three groups: (1) those with no children in the home under 18 years of age; (2) those with one or more children under 18, but none under six years of age; and (3) those with children under six years of age (irrespective of whether there are also older children at home). These three categories will be used consistently throughout the analysis in subsequent chapters.

Table 2.2 Marital Status, by Age and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Marital status	WHITES				BLACKS			
	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average
Married, husband present	86	87	86	86	64	66	69	67
Married, husband absent	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1
Widowed	1	2	2	2	2	5	7	5
Divorced	4	3	5	4	6	8	5	6
Separated	2	2	2	2	16	15	10	14
Never married	6	6	4	5	11	4	7	7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,805	5,158	5,596	15,559	689	716	703	2,107

Table 2.3 Ages of Children Living at Home, by Respondent's Marital Status, Age, and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Marital status of respondent and ages of children living at home	WHITES				BLACKS			
	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average
Married								
No children under 18	6	8	23	12	5	14	32	18
Children 6-17, none younger	31	53	60	49	33	44	48	42
Children under 6	63	40	18	39	62	42	20	40
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,145	4,493	4,804	13,442	443	476	485	1,404
Nonmarried								
No children under 18	47	51	49	49	25	18	43	28
Children 6-17, none younger	30	37	44	37	37	51	40	43
Children under 6	23	13	7	14	38	31	17	29
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	660	665	792	2,117	247	239	218	704
Total or average								
No children under 18	12	13	26	17	12	15	36	21
Children 6-17, none younger	31	51	58	47	34	46	45	42
Children under 6	57	36	16	36	53	39	19	37
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,805	5,158	5,596	15,559	689	716	703	2,107

Table 2.3 shows that five out of six women between 30 and 44 years of age and seven out of eight who are married[1] and living with their husbands have children of school or preschool age at home. Among married women, the likelihood of having a preschool-age child is approximately the same for whites and blacks, but married blacks are more likely than whites to have no children under 18 living at home. Within each color group, the likelihood of having a preschool-age child declines dramatically from roughly three-fifths among those in their early thirties to about one-fifth among those in their early forties. This oldest age group is also considerably more likely to have no children under 18 at home--about a fourth of the whites and a third of the blacks.

Among all women other than those who are married, the proportion with children is about one-half among the whites, but almost three-fourths among the blacks. The intercolor difference in this respect, which is most pronounced among women in their thirties, is primarily attributable to the much larger proportion of never-married black than white women who report having children (49 percent versus 4 percent).[2] Looked at slightly differently, of all the women in the age group who have children under 18 years of age living at home, 92 percent of the whites are married and living with their husbands, in contrast to 70 percent of the blacks (Table 2.4). Women with children under six in the household are the most likely to be living with their husbands. Only one in 20 white women with preschool-age children is in a fatherless household, but this ratio among the blacks is over one in four.

Marital and Childbearing History

While a woman's current marital status and child-care responsibilities have a great deal to do with her current labor force status, her marital history is more important in interpreting her past labor market behavior. For example, one may hypothesize that a woman who marries immediately after leaving school and who has a child during the first year of marriage will have less labor force exposure during her lifetime--other things being equal--than a woman for whom there is a several-year interval between school and marriage and/or birth of first child. The establishment of a work career after leaving school may make it easier for a woman to find a suitable job after her children no longer require her presence at home.

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[1] Unless otherwise noted, the term "married" refers to respondents who are married with husband present. "Nonmarried" refers to respondents who are single, divorced, separated, widowed, and married, husband absent.

[2] It should be noted that whether never-married women are classified as having children is based not on a response to a direct question on this matter, but on whether the respondent identifies any members of the household as her children.

Table 2.4 Proportion of Respondents Who Are Married, by Ages of Children Living at Home and Color

Ages of children living at home	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent married	Total number (thousands)	Percent married
No children under 18	2,713	62	443	56
Children under 18	12,846	92	1,664	70
Children 6-17, none younger	7,323	89	888	66
Children under 6	5,523	95	776	73
Total or average	15,559	86	2,107	67

Marital history Of women in their thirties and early forties who are married (husband present or absent), 12 percent of the whites and 22 percent of the blacks have been married more than once (Table 2.5). A fifth of the white women, but a third of the black women married prior to age 18. However, the proportions who had married by age 19 are similar: approximately half of those in each color group. Women now in their early thirties, irrespective of color, married at an earlier age than those in their early forties. The latter were about twice as likely as the former to have married after age 24. The same pattern is evident in data on the interval between leaving school and first marriage. Among both color groups, women in their forties were about twice as likely as those in their early thirties to have waited six or more years after leaving school to marry.

Number of children ever born Over 90 percent of ever-married women 30 to 44 years of age have had children (94 percent of the whites and 92 percent of the blacks)(Table 2.6). However, while the proportion of black women who have had only a single child or no children at all is slightly greater than that of white women, the average number of children born to black women is larger than for their white counterparts. Nearly half the black women have had four children or more, and a fourth have had at least six. The corresponding proportions for whites are 33 percent and 9 percent. Large families are particularly prevalent among black women now in their thirties. About half of them, in contrast to two-fifths of those in their early forties, have had as many as four children.

Table 2.5 Selected Aspects of Marital History of Ever-Married Respondents, by Age and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Marital characteristic	WHITES				BLACKS			
	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average
Number of marriages(a)								
1	88	89	86	87	82	78	75	78
2	12	10	12	11	16	21	22	20
3 or more	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	2
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,186	4,522	4,851	13,549	450	482	498	1,424
Age at first marriage								
15 or younger	5	4	5	5	17	13	11	14
16-17	20	16	14	16	20	20	17	19
18-19	30	29	23	27	22	18	22	21
20-22	32	29	31	31	24	25	23	24
23-24	6	10	12	10	7	9	9	8
25 or older	7	12	15	12	10	15	18	15
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,541	4,870	5,395	14,806	614	685	656	1,956
Elapsed time between leaving school and first marriage(b)								
Married before leaving school	4	2	3	3	2	5	5	4
Less than 2 years	44	36	29	36	48	37	30	38
2-3 years	27	28	23	26	19	24	21	22
4-5 years	13	14	18	15	15	12	19	15
6-10 years	10	15	21	16	12	14	16	14
11 years or more	2	4	6	4	4	8	10	7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,371	4,705	5,148	14,224	581	667	643	1,891

(a) Includes only respondents who were married, husband present and married, husband absent at the time of the survey.

(b) Includes only ever-married respondents with work experience.

Table 2.6 Selected Aspects of Childbearing History of Ever-Married Respondents, by Age and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Characteristic	WHITES				BLACKS			
	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average
Number of children ever born								
None	6	5	8	6	4	8	11	8
1	8	10	13	11	12	10	16	12
2-3	55	50	48	51	35	33	33	34
4-5	23	25	22	24	23	20	19	21
6 or more	7	9	9	9	26	29	21	25
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,541	4,870	5,395	14,806	614	685	656	1,956
Age at birth of first child(a)								
Less than 18	9	8	9	9	35	30	26	30
18-19	22	19	15	18	24	21	20	22
20-24	52	46	47	48	31	31	31	31
25-29	15	19	20	18	9	11	17	12
30 or more	1	7	9	6	1	6	6	5
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,260	4,630	4,971	13,861	590	632	584	1,806
Elapsed time between first marriage and birth of first child(a)								
1 year or less	56	49	49	52	81	71	68	73
2-3 years	29	32	30	30	14	16	15	15
4-5 years	8	10	11	10	4	6	6	5
6 years or more	7	9	10	8	2	8	11	7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,260	4,630	4,971	13,861	590	632	584	1,806

(a) Includes only those respondents who have had children.

Birth of first child Among the respondents who have married and given birth to a child, a majority had their first child by the time they were in their early twenties. Three in ten had their first child while still in their teens. On the other hand, 6 percent gave birth for the first time after reaching 30 years of age. Black women are much more likely than white to have had their first child while in their teens (52 percent versus 27 percent). Indeed, three-tenths of ever-married black women had already had a child before reaching the age of 18, while this was true for less than a tenth of the white women. In both color groups, it is the youngest of the three age categories who are most likely to have had their first child at an early age.

Ever-married women with children typically had their first child within a year of marriage. Over half of the whites and nearly three-fourths of the blacks had their first child during the first year of marriage or prior to marriage. The tendency toward early childbearing is somewhat more evident among the younger than older women in the cohort.

II FAMILY BACKGROUND

The characteristics of family and home during a young woman's formative years may have effects upon both her attitudes toward working and her actual labor market behavior as an adult, particularly as mediated through experiences within the formal educational system. It is therefore worthwhile to note how the age group of women under consideration is distributed by such characteristics and to what extent there are differences in such distributions according to age and color.

Residence at age 15 There is considerable difference in the type of communities in which white and black women lived as teenagers (Table 2.7). Among married women (this includes those with husbands present and absent), about a third of the whites were in small towns and another third were in cities, while a fourth were on farms or in other rural residences. Black women were considerably more likely than white women to have grown up on farms, and only a fifth lived in small towns at age 15. Among white women, there is no substantial difference among the three five-year age groups in distribution by residence at age 15. But among black women, those in their early thirties are much less likely than those between 35 and 44 to have grown up on farms.

Living arrangements at age 15 Nearly 80 percent of the white women in our study but only 55 percent of the black women were living with both their natural parents at age 15 (Table 2.8). Black women were almost twice as likely as white women to have been living with only one natural parent (23 percent versus 12 percent), and as many as 17 percent of the total cohort of blacks were not living with either parent.

Table 2.7 Residence of Married(a) Respondents When 15 Years of Age, by Age and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Residence at age 15	WHITES				BLACKS			
	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average
Farm or ranch	19	21	22	21	24	37	35	32
Rural nonfarm	8	6	5	6	6	6	8	6
Town (less than 25,000)	34	33	33	33	21	16	23	20
Suburb of large city	6	5	4	5	3	3	2	2
City (25,000-100,000)	13	14	15	14	17	14	10	13
Large city(100,000 or more)	19	20	20	20	29	26	23	26
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,186	4,522	4,851	13,549	450	482	498	1,424

(a) Includes respondents who are married with husband present and married with husband absent.

Table 2.8 Living Arrangements When 15 Years of Age, by Color

(Percentage distribution)

Living arrangement at age 15	WHITES	BLACKS
Father and mother	78	55
Mother	10	19
Mother and stepfather	3	4
Father	2	4
Father and stepmother	1	2
Male relative	3	8
Female relative	1	7
On her own	0*	1
Other	1	1
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	15,559	2,107

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

Parents' occupations when respondent was 15 Nearly half the married women in our cohort were raised in homes in which the head of the household was a blue-collar worker when the respondent was 15 years old; a fourth were from white-collar homes; and a fifth from farm families (Table 2.9). Black women, however, are far less likely than white women to have lived in white-collar homes as teenagers and are correspondingly more likely to have come from homes where the head was a farm or service worker. The youngest group of women (30 to 34 years of age) were less likely than the older groups to have come from homes headed by farm workers, and this difference is particularly pronounced among the black women.

In general, the typical married woman today between the ages of 30 and 44 lived as a teenager in a home where the mother did not work. The mothers of less than a third of the whites but over half the blacks worked when their daughters were 15 years of age (Table 2.10). Of the mothers who worked, the whites were about equally divided among white-collar, blue-collar and service jobs. The mothers of black women were much more heavily represented in service and farm occupations: about half had service jobs and a third did farm work.

Even within the relatively narrow age limits of the present sample, the probability that a married woman grew up in a home with a working mother depends upon how old she is. Among whites and blacks alike, those women who are now in their early forties were less likely than those in their thirties to have had working mothers. This pattern is undoubtedly a consequence of the secular rise in participation rates of married women during this century. It is also noteworthy that the mothers of women in this older age group who did work were more likely to be in service and farm jobs than were the working mothers of younger women.

III HEALTH CHARACTERISTICS AND SKILLS

The health of a woman has obvious implications for her labor market activity; the health of her husband and of other family members may also be relevant, either inhibiting her labor force participation if her care is required at home or encouraging it if medical expenses or earnings loss require her to supplement the family's income. The education that a woman has, as well as her specialized training, may also be expected to influence whether she is employed and, if so, at what occupation. The purpose of the present section is to ascertain how these important influences on labor force activity are related to age, color, and marital status.

Health Characteristics of Family

Respondent's health About four-fifths of all women between the ages of 30 and 44 report that they are free of health problems or physical conditions that affect in any way their capacity for paid employment or

Table 2.9 Occupation of Father or Head of Household When Married[(a)] Respondent Was 15 Years of Age, by Age and Color[(b)]

(Percentage distribution)

Occupation of father or head of household	WHITES				BLACKS			
	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average
White-collar	29	25	26	26	6	9	7	7
Blue-collar	48	43	41	44	53	34	30	39
Service	4	5	6	5	13	13	15	14
Farm	16	22	22	20	24	40	41	35
Did not work	4	5	5	5	3	3	7	5
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,128	4,462	4,747	13,337	442	472	482	1,395

(a) Includes respondents who are married with husband present and married with husband absent.

(b) Excludes those living "on their own" at age 15.

Table 2.10 Occupation of Mother When Married[(a)] Respondent Was 15 Years of Age, by Age and Color[(b)]

(Percentage distribution)

Occupation of mother	WHITES				BLACKS			
	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average
White-collar	12	12	8	11	3	4	1	3
Blue-collar	10	11	8	10	9	11	5	8
Service	9	7	10	9	26	23	24	25
Farm	1	3	3	2	15	14	17	16
Did not work	67	67	71	68	46	47	53	49
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	3,931	4,214	4,378	12,523	373	375	390	1,138

(a) Includes respondents who were married with husband present and married with husband absent.

(b) Includes only respondents who lived with their mothers when they were 15 years of age.

for housework; somewhat over a tenth report a condition that limits their employment, and about 6 percent say they are entirely unable to work. Approximately the same proportion of women rate their own health "excellent" or "good" as report themselves free of any health problems limiting their ability to work (85 and 81 percent, respectively) (Table 2.11). There are differences in these proportions by color, age, and marital status (Tables 2.11 and 2.12). In general, white women appear to have fewer health limitations than black women. Married women appear to have fewer health limitations than others, although the differences are not significant in the case of whites. Among black women, 81 percent of those married and living with their husbands report no health problems, compared with 74 percent of the nonmarried.

There is a fairly substantial relationship between age and health condition in the case of both white and black women. Among whites, those in the 40 to 44 year age group are more likely (by 8 percentage points) than women 30 to 34 years old to have health problems. The corresponding spread in the case of blacks is 12 percentage points. Married women with children under six years of age enjoy better health than other married women, but this is probably largely a reflection of their younger age. The health problems that adult women report tend to be of relatively long duration. More than half of those whose health limits their work activity have had this problem for longer than four years, and over a third have had the problem for 10 years or more. At the other extreme, only one in eight of those with health problems have developed them only within the year preceding the survey.

Husband's health Approximately an eighth of the married women in this age cohort have husbands with health problems that limit or prevent their working (Table 2.13). Overall, there is no difference between whites and blacks in this proportion, although the reported health problems of black men appear more severe, since a higher proportion are prevented entirely from working (5 versus 2 percent). As might be expected, the incidence of health problems among the husbands increases with the woman's age. Among whites, for example, the proportion rises from 9 percent among women in their early thirties to 15 percent among those in their early forties. The corresponding proportions for blacks are 11 and 13 percent, an insignificant difference.

Health of other members of household An eighth of all women 30 to 44 years of age live in households in which members other than their husbands have health conditions that limit their work or activities (Table 2.14).[3] This proportion is almost a fourth, however, among the

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[3] The question was worded: "Does any other member of your family living here have a physical condition or health problem which limits his work or other activities in any way?"

Table 2.11 Selected Health Measures, by Marital Status, Ages of Children Living at Home, and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Health measure	WHITES						BLACKS					
	Married				Non-married	Total or average	Married				Non-married	Total or average
	No children under 18	Children 6-17, none younger	Children under 6	Total or average			No children under 18	Children 6-17, none younger	Children under 6	Total or average		
Effect of health												
Does not limit work	76	80	88	83	80	82	77	80	84	81	74	78
Limits work	16	13	8	11	11	11	15	14	12	13	17	14
Prevents work	7	6	4	5	9	6	7	5	4	5	9	6
Limits housework	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0*	1	0*	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,676	6,539	5,227	13,442	2,117	15,559	247	587	569	1,404	704	2,107
Self-rating of health												
Excellent	38	44	53	47	46	46	33	31	36	34	31	33
Good	44	41	39	41	39	40	45	46	49	47	40	44
Fair	14	13	7	11	12	11	14	19	12	15	20	17
Poor	5	2	1	2	4	2	8	4	4	4	9	6
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,676	6,539	5,227	13,442	2,117	15,559	247	587	569	1,404	704	2,107
Duration of health problem (years) (a)												
Less than 1	8	12	16	13	13	13	15	13	5	11	13	12
1-2	14	18	19	18	14	17	18	26	17	22	16	19
3-4	14	16	18	16	17	16	12	14	17	15	18	16
5-9	29	21	19	22	20	22	28	27	34	30	24	27
10 or more	34	32	29	32	36	32	26	19	27	23	30	26
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	407	1,318	650	2,375	439	2,813	56	118	94	268	186	454

(a) Includes only respondents who report a health problem.
* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

Table 2.12 Effect of Health on Work of Married[a] Respondents, by Age and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Effect of health on work	WHITES				BLACKS			
	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average
Does not limit work	87	82	79	82	87	82	75	81
Limits work	8	12	13	11	11	11	17	13
Prevents work	4	6	7	6	2	5	8	5
Limits housework	1	0*	1	1	0*	1	1	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,186	4,522	4,851	13,549	450	482	498	1,424

(a) Includes respondents who are married with husband present and married with husband absent.

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5

Table 2.13 Husband's Health, by Age of Married Respondent and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Husband's health	WHITES				BLACKS			
	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average
Does not limit work	91	89	85	88	89	87	87	88
Limits work	8	9	12	10	6	8	9	8
Prevents work	1	2	3	2	5	5	4	5
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,145	4,493	4,804	13,442	443	476	485	1,404

Table 2.14 Number of Family Members (Other Than Husband) with Health Problems, by Marital Status of Respondent, Ages of Children Living at Home, and Color(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Number of family members with health problems	Marital status		Ages of children			Total or average
	Married	Nonmarried	None under 18	6-17, none younger	Under 6	
	WHITES					
None	89	78	67	88	91	88
1	10	20	30	11	8	11
2 or more	1	2	3	1	1	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	12,319	1,650	1,123	7,323	5,523	13,969
	BLACKS					
None	89	77	78	85	87	85
1	10	20	18	14	10	13
2 or more	1	3	3	2	2	2
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,249	592	177	888	776	1,841

(a) Includes only respondents with family members (other than husband) in the household.

nonmarried women. Moreover, among all women with no children under 18 living at home, 33 percent of the whites and 21 percent of the blacks are in households where such health problems exist. Tabulations currently available do not reveal how many of these women are single and live with parents who are ill and how many are married women with one or more parents or parents-in-law in the household.

Of the women who live with other family members with health problems, more than a fourth report that this situation has had an influence on their own decisions about working (Table 2.15).[4] An eighth were needed at home so that they were unable to work, while a similar proportion have had to work to meet medical expenses.

Table 2.15 Influence of Health Problems of Family Members in Household on Respondent's Employment Decisions, by Color[(a)]

(Percentage distribution)

Influence of health problems	WHITES	BLACKS
Influenced decision	28	23
Unable to work, needed at home	13	14
Able to work part time only	2	5
Must work to meet medical expenses	14	4
Did not influence decision	72	77
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,730	273

(a) Includes only health problems of family members other than husband.

Education and Training

Years of school completed Among all women in the age cohort, about one in seven has at most a grade school education and another 18 percent have at least some college, while nearly half completed high school but have not ventured beyond it (Table 2.16). Again, however, these proportions vary substantially by age and by color. The proportion who finished at least high school rises from 58 percent for those 40 to 44 years old to 69 percent for those in their early thirties; and the proportion of college graduates increases from 6 to 10 percent. Black women suffer a substantial educational disadvantage relative to white. While less than a third of the white women failed to complete high school, this is the case for nearly three-fifths of the black women. Black women are more than twice as likely as white to have had no education beyond grade school (28 versus 13 percent) and substantially less likely to have had any college (12 versus 20 percent). On the other hand, the proportion of college graduates is not much higher among whites than blacks (9 versus 7 percent). While it would appear, on the basis of the sample, that a declining proportion of black women have completed college, this relationship is probably attributable to sampling error since estimates from the larger Current Population Survey for March 1967 place the proportion of black women with four years of college or more at 7.2 percent for the 30 to 34 year old group and 5.6 percent for those 35 to 44.[5]

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[4] The question reads "Have ____________'s health problems influenced in any way your decision to work or not to work outside the home?" (The question relates to any family member residing in the household except the husband of the respondent).

Table 2.16 Highest Year of School Completed, by Age and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Years of school completed	30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average
	WHITES			
8 or less	10	12	16	13
9-11	17	18	23	19
12	51	48	46	48
13-15	11	12	9	11
16 or more	11	9	6	9
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,805	5,158	5,596	15,559
	BLACKS			
8 or less	25	26	35	28
9-11	30	33	31	31
12	35	27	23	28
13-15	6	6	5	5
16 or more	5	8	7	7
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	689	716	703	2,107

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[5] U. S. Bureau of the Census, *Population Characteristics: Educational Attainment: March 1967*, Current Population Report Series P-20 (February 1968), Table 1, p. 10.

Educational attainment is distinctly related to marital status in that women who have never been married are far more likely than others to be college graduates (Table 2.17): nearly a fourth of all white single women have four years or more of college, in contrast with less than one in 12 of all the others. Among black women the difference is in the same direction, but much smaller (10 versus 7 percent). While this latter difference is not statistically significant, it is probably real.

Occupational training Since leaving school full time, about a third of all women with work experience have taken some type of training or course of study, whether in a company-or government-sponsored program or in a course offered by an educational institution (Table 2.18). Training or education outside of regular school, like higher education itself, is also more common among single women than among those who have ever been married. In general, black women are somewhat less likely than white women to have had such training, although the intercolor difference in this respect is not nearly so pronounced as in the case of years of schooling, nor is it so large in the case of the group of women under consideration as it is among men 45 to 59 years of age.[6]

Professional and trade certification The possession of a certificate required for the practice of a profession such as teaching or nursing, or of a trade, such as beautician or practical nursing, may be viewed as an indication of specialized occupational preparation and perhaps also of occupational and labor market commitment. About 15 percent of the women in our study have received such certificates, but the intercolor variation in extent and type of certification is rather striking (Table 2.19). About 10 percent of all white women hold professional certificates, but only 4 percent have trade certificates. Among black women, these proportions are 8 and 7 percent, respectively. In this respect, also, single women are seen to be better prepared for the world of work than women who have married.

IV INCOME AND EXPENDITURE PATTERNS

Among the factors affecting a woman's labor market activity are the financial resources available to her without working as well as the particular financial obligations that confront her. This section examines briefly the pattern of variation in factors of these kinds.

Family Income, Excluding Respondent's Earnings

For the entire cohort of women 30 to 44 years of age living with at least one other family member, one in six was in a household in which family income, excluding her own earnings, was less than $3,000 in 1966 (Table 2.20). However, this fraction was only one in 11 for married white women but more than one in five for married black women.

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[6] See Parnes, et al., The Pre-Retirement Years, Vol. I, p. 28.

Table 2.17 Highest Year of School Completed, by Marital Status and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Highest year of school completed	Married, husband present	Married, husband absent	Widowed	Divorced	Separated	Never married	Total or average
				WHITES			
8 or less	12	18	9	16	27	13	13
9-11	19	13	19	25	27	12	19
12	49	56	56	45	37	40	48
13-15	11	9	11	12	7	11	11
16 or more	8	4	5	3	2	23	9
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	13,442	117	255	684	309	753	15,559
				BLACKS			
8 or less	27	27	39	26	33	29	28
9-11	30	28	29	39	36	22	31
12	30	19	23	18	25	36	28
13-15	6	13	1	8	4	3	5
16 or more	7	13	7	8	3	10	7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,404	26	102	131	293	152	2,107

Table 2.18 Extent of Occupational Training Received by Respondents with Work Experience, by Marital and Family Status, and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Extent of occupational training received	Never married, no children currently in household	Ever married, no children currently in household	Ever married, with children currently in household	Total[(a)] or average
	WHITES			
None	60	67	66	66
Less than 6 months	18	17	18	18
6 months or more	22	16	16	16
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	679	1,441	12,784	14,928
	BLACKS			
None	62	71	71	71
Less than 6 months	10	15	10	11
6 months or more	28	15	19	19
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	74	284	1,607	2,035

(a) Includes never-married respondents with children in household not shown separately.

Table 2.19 Proportion of Married Respondents and Proportion of Respondents with Work Experience Holding Professional or Trade Certificates, by Age, Marital and Family Status, and Color

Selected characteristic	Total number (thousands)	Percent with trade certificate	Percent with professional certificate
	WHITES		
Age(a)	13,549	4	10
30-34	4,186	3	10
35-39	4,522	4	11
40-44	4,851	4	9
Marital and family status(b)	14,928	4	11
Never married, no children	679	7	25
Never married, with children	25	0	0
Ever married, no children	1,441	5	8
Ever married, with children	12,784	4	10
Total or average	15,559	4	10
	BLACKS		
Age(a)	1,424	8	7
30-34	450	9	5
35-39	482	9	9
40-44	498	5	8
Marital and family status(b)	2,035	8	7
Never married, no children	74	16	12
Never married, with children	70	9	6
Ever married, no children	284	6	10
Ever married, with children	1,607	8	6
Total or average	2,107	7	8

(a) Includes only married respondents, spouse present and absent.
(b) Includes only respondents with work experience.

Table 2.20 Family Income in 1966, Exclusive of Respondent's Earnings, by Marital Status and Color[a]

(Percentage distribution)

1966 Total family income less respondents earnings	Married	Nonmarried	Total or average
	WHITES		
Less than $2,000	6	45	11
$2,000-2,999	2	17	4
$3,000-4,999	10	24	11
$5,000-6,999	20	6	18
$7,000-9,999	33	5	30
$10,000-14,999	23	2	20
$15,000 and over	6	0	6
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	13,442	1,650	15,092
	BLACKS		
Less than $2,000	13	65	28
$2,000-2,999	9	16	11
$3,000-4,999	28	15	24
$5,000-6,999	22	2	16
$7,000-9,999	22	1	16
$10,000-14,999	6	1	5
$15,000 and over	1	0	1
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,404	592	1,996

(a) Includes only those living with at least one other family member.

As would be expected, the disparity in family incomes between those married and living with their husbands and all others is even more dramatic than the color difference. As many as nine-tenths of the married women have family incomes (excluding their own earnings) of at least $3,000, but this is true of less than a third of the nonmarried. At the other extreme, a woman living with her husband is 10 times as likely as all other women to have a family income (exclusive of her own earnings) of at least $7,000. These figures must be interpreted cautiously, of course, because they do not take account of differences between married women and others in family size and composition.

The employment patterns of husbands are another indicator of financial security for married women (Table 2.21). While the vast majority of husbands (86 percent) worked a full-time schedule of at least 2,000 hours during the preceding year, there is a substantial color disparity in the proportion who worked fewer hours: 22 percent for the black women, but only 13 percent for the white.

Table 2.21 Hours Worked by Husband during 1966, by Color

(Percentage distribution)

Hours worked by husband in 1966	WHITES	BLACKS
Husband not employed	1	2
Less than 1,000	2	4
1,000 - 1,499	2	4
1,500 - 1,999	7	12
2,000 or more	87	78
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	13,442	1,404

Half the white women and nearly two-fifths of the black women in our age cohort reported the purchase of one or more consumer durables during the year preceding the survey (Table 2.22).[7] Among married women this proportion was even greater: more than half the whites and somewhat less than half the blacks had bought some such item. Other purchases amounting

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[7] Respondents were asked whether in 1966 they or their husbands had purchased any of the following 10 items: washing machine, clothes dryer, electric or gas stove, refrigerator, freezer, room air conditioner, television, garbage disposal, hi-fi or stereo, or dishwasher.

Table 2.22 Family Expenditures and Family Financial Responsibilities, by Marital Status and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Financial characteristic	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Married	Non-married	Total or average	Married	Non-married	Total or average
Number of consumer durables purchased in 1966						
None	46	69	50	56	71	61
1	33	20	31	27	18	24
2	14	7	13	12	8	11
3 or more	7	3	6	5	3	5
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	13,442	2,117	15,559	1,404	704	2,107
Type of major expenditure made in 1966						
None	41	59	44	59	74	64
Housing only	12	6	11	9	5	8
Other than housing	33	30	32	24	17	21
Both housing and other	14	5	13	8	4	7
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	13,442	2,117	15,559	1,404	704	2,107
Number of dependents						
None	10	41	14	15	23	18
1	13	21	14	11	15	12
2-3	50	26	47	35	28	33
4-5	22	9	20	21	20	20
6 or more	6	2	5	18	15	17
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	13,442	2,117	15,559	1,404	704	2,107
Number of children in college						
None	94	95	94	95	97	96
1	5	4	5	5	3	4
2 or more	1	1	1	0*	1	0*
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	13,442	2,117	15,559	1,404	704	2,107

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

to more than $200 either for housing, remodeling or redecorating, or for some other purpose such as health, recreation, or education were reported by three-fifths of the white married women and by two-fifths of the black.[8]

Family Responsibilities

Women in the age group under consideration, even if not married, typically have dependents. Among those who are married and living with their husbands, 90 percent of the whites and 85 percent of the blacks report one or more persons dependent on them (and their husbands) for at least half of their support. Blacks are somewhat more likely than the whites to have no dependents, but also more likely to have a large number: 18 percent of the blacks, but only 6 percent of the whites report six or more dependents. Among all women except those who are married and living with their husbands, blacks are more likely to have dependents than whites--three-fourths versus three-fifths. In this case, also, the blacks are considerably more likely to have a large number of dependents.

It is interesting that there is relatively little variation, either by color or by marital status, in the proportion of women who report having children in college. The fraction ranges between 4 and 6 percent in the four marital status-color categories.

Another measure of the responsibilities of the nonmarried women is provided by the data in Table 2.23, which shows the relationship to head of household of all women except those living with their husbands. Two-thirds of the white women in this category and three-fourths of the black are the heads of their households, and this proportion is in the neighborhood of four-fifths among those women with children. Among those without children under 18, over half of the whites and three-fifths of the blacks head their own households.

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[8] Two questions were asked. The first read: "In 1966, did you make any major expenditures on housing such as remodeling or redecorating, plumbing, electrical work, roofing, painting, or heating which cost more than $200?" The second read: "Aside from anything else you have mentioned, did you (or other members of your family) have any other major expenses in 1966 such as medical, dental, accident, travel, or education which cost more than $200?"

Table 2.23 Relationship of Nonmarried Respondents to Head of Household, by Ages of Children Living at Home and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Relationship to head of household	No children under 18	Children 6-17, none younger	Children under 6	Total or average
	WHITES			
Head of household	53	85	78	68
Sister of head	3	2	0	2
Daughter of head	39	11	19	26
Other	5	2	4	4
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,038	784	284	2,104
	BLACKS			
Head of household	61	82	80	75
Sister of head	2	2	0*	2
Mother of head	0*	0	0	0*
Daughter of head	21	12	16	16
Other	16	4	3	7
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	196	310	205	711

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

V ATTITUDES TOWARD WORK AND HOME

In view of the substantial discretionary element in labor market activity of married women, it seems reasonable to suppose that their perception of the appropriate role of women with respect to employment outside the home will influence their work decisions and vice versa. A strong belief that a mother's obligation is to be at home with her children, for example, may be expected to restrict labor market activity. Subsequent chapters will examine the relationship between such attitudes and labor market behavior, despite the admitted difficulty of establishing the direction of causation. In this section, we examine the interrelationships between such attitudes and other factors which are expected to influence labor market activity.

Our attitudinal measure is based on responses to a series of three questions postulating the employment of a married woman with school-age children under specified conditions. After an initial statement by the interviewer that "people have different ideas about whether married women should work," respondents were asked how they felt about a married woman with children between 6 and 12 years of age taking a full-time job outside the home "if it is absolutely necessary to make ends meet." A response was chosen from a card containing the alternatives "definitely all right," "probably all right," "probably not all right," and "definitely not all right." They were then asked how they felt about such a woman working under each of the following circumstances: "if she wants to work and her husband agrees" and "if she wants to work even if her husband does not particularly like the idea." In each instance the women were requested to choose one of the four responses listed on the card. On the basis of their responses, one-fourth of all women in the age cohort are classified as having "permissive" attitudes toward the employment of mothers, two-fifths as being "ambivalent," and slightly over a third as being "opposed."[9] Black women are half again as likely as white to have permissive attitudes and whites are 50 percent more likely than blacks to be opposed.

Correlates of Permissive Attitudes

In examining the factors that appear to be related to variations in attitude toward working mothers, we focus exclusively upon married women, since they are the group for whom the issue is relevant. It is worth noting to begin with, however, that in the case of both whites and blacks, never-married women without children tend to have somewhat more tolerant attitudes toward working mothers than women who are, or have been, married. Among whites, 34 percent of the single women are "permissive" as compared with 22 percent of the married women living with their husbands. Among blacks, the corresponding percentages are 48 and 34. The reasons for these differences by marital status are at best speculative, may run in either direction, and perhaps are related systematically to variables which we have not yet examined.

Among married women, neither the presence nor the ages of children in the household is related to the views expressed by respondents toward the propriety of labor market participation by mothers (Table 2.24).

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[9] The responses to the questions were scored as follows: for each question, "definitely all right" was weighted 5 points; "probably all right," 4 points; no opinion or undecided, 3 points; "probably not all right," 2 points; and "definitely not all right," 1 point. The composite score for each respondent thus had a possible range of 3 to 15. Scores of 3 through 9 were designated "opposed;" 11 and 12, "ambivalent;" and 12-15, "permissive."

Table 2.24 Proportion of Married Respondents with Permissive Attitude toward the Employment of Mothers, by Selected Characteristics and Color

Characteristic	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent permissive	Total number (thousands)	Percent permissive
All married respondents	13,442	22	1,404	34
Children in household				
None under 18 years	1,676	21	247	32
6 to 17 years, none younger	6,539	23	587	36
Under 6 years	5,227	23	569	32
Children ever born[(a)]				
0	803	21	116	40
1	1,343	22	164	28
2 to 3	6,948	24	511	31
4 to 5	3,297	22	280	31
6 or more	1,165	17	360	40
Age[(a)]				
30 to 34	4,186	24	450	34
35 to 39	4,522	22	482	35
40 to 44	4,851	21	498	32
Highest year of school completed[(a)]				
8 or less	1,680	17	385	38
9 to 11	2,621	23	434	34
12	6,624	22	422	28
13 to 15	1,462	25	88	29
16 or more	1,152	30	99	38

(a) Includes married respondents with husband present and absent.

This is a rather surprising finding. It suggests that women are expressing fundamental views on the matter rather than simply reflecting--or rationalizing--their current personal circumstances, since, in fact, there are markedly different labor force participation rates between women with children under six and all others. Looked at somewhat differently, one would expect less permissive views among those with young children if responses coincided with actual labor market behavior. Not only is the current composition of the household unrelated to views held on this subject, but childbearing history of the women also appears to be unrelated. Among white women there is virtually no difference between those who have never had children and those who have, except that women who have had six or more children are less likely than others to have permissive attitudes. Among blacks, those with no children and those with six or more are equally permissive, and more so than women with between one and five children.

Attitudes toward the employment of mothers are also rather invariant by age, at least within the cohort of women under consideration. There is, to be sure, a trace of an inverse relationship between permissiveness and age, but the differences are very small and probably not statistically significant. Education, on the other hand, does make a difference. Of white women with less than nine years of schooling, only 17 percent express permissive attitudes, in contrast with 30 percent of those with college degrees. Among those with between 9 and 15 years, the corresponding proportion falls between 22 and 25 percent. Among black women, there is a much different pattern. The most permissive are those at both extremes of the educational attainment continuum.

The relationship between educational attainment and attitude toward labor market activity by mothers has at least two possible explanations. It may be that education produces a more "liberal" view of the permissible roles of woman in society. On the other hand, education may be selective of those women who have "permissive" views on women's employment to begin with, and who therefore wish to prepare themselves more adequately for the world of work. On the other hand, why such a large fraction of black women with eight or fewer years of education express permissive attitudes is not readily apparent.

Among the factors we have investigated, the one most strongly associated with the attitude of the woman is her report of her husband's attitude toward her working (Table 2.25). Each married respondent was asked how her husband felt (or would feel) about her working. Among whites, those who reported a strongly favorable reaction by their husbands are three times as likely themselves to have permissive views with respect to women's working as those who reported a strongly negative reaction by their husbands (32 versus 11 percent). In the case of black women, the relationship is even stronger, the corresponding percentages being 53 and 12. This association, of course, invites explanation. We are unsure at this time what it means. In the interest of harmonious and happy relationships, husbands and wives accommodate to each other, and, thus, a woman's perception of her husband's attitude may be measuring the same thing as the variable entitled attitude toward the employment of mothers. It should be recognized, however, that some apparent conflict remains, since nearly one in eight married women whose husbands dislike very much their working, nevertheless, hold a permissive view on working mothers.

Table 2.25 Proportion of Married Respondents with Permissive Attitude toward Employment of Mothers, by Husband's Attitude toward Wife's Working,(a) and Color:

Husband's attitude toward wife's working	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent permissive	Total number (thousands)	Percent permissive
Like it very much	2,016	32	339	53
Like it somewhat	2,223	28	282	33
Don't care	2,605	29	295	37
Dislike it somewhat	2,577	19	231	24
Dislike it very much	3,699	11	215	12
Total or average	13,442	22	1,404	34

(a) For respondents in the labor force, the question was "How does your husband feel about your working--does he like it very much, like it somewhat, not care either way, dislike it somewhat, or dislike it very much?" Respondents not in the labor force, were asked how their husbands would feel about their working now.

The health of a woman, as well as the health of her husband, may be related to her view about the propriety of mothers working. White women whose health prevents their working are somewhat less likely than other women to have permissive views, although this is not true of black women (Table 2.26). Among blacks, women whose husbands have health problems that prevent or limit their work activities are more likely than others to have permissive attitudes; among whites the differences are in the same direction, but are negligible.

To test the hypothesis that a woman's attitude toward the employment of mothers is influenced by the situation in her own home and community during her adolescence, the attitudes were cross-tabulated against a variety of such "background" factors, but few striking associations

Table 2.26 Proportion of Married Respondents with Permissive Attitude toward Employment of Mothers, by Selected Characteristics, and Color

Characteristic	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent permissive	Total number (thousands)	Percent permissive
Respondent's health(a)				
Health prevents work	753	14	71	31
Health limits work	1,508	22	188	30
Health does not limit work	11,154	23	1,158	34
Husband's health				
Health prevents work	277	25	67	50
Health limits work	1,315	24	107	41
Health does not limit work	11,815	22	1,228	32
Residence at age 15(a)				
Large city	2,686	26	366	35
Elsewhere	10,816	22	1,061	33
Employment status of mother when respondent was 15 years old(b)				
Employed	3,915	23	570	38
White-collar	1,354	26	33	17
Blue-collar	1,181	22	90	47
Service	1,079	22	274	37
Farm	301	20	173	39
Not employed	8,400	22	541	27

(a) Includes married respondents with husband present and absent.
(b) Includes only respondents who lived with their mothers at age 15.

were discovered. White women who lived in large cities at age 15 seem to be slightly more likely than other white women to have permissive views with respect to the employment of mothers, but this is not true of black women. In any case, the differences are probably not statistically significant. Whether the respondent's mother worked when the respondent was a teenager makes a difference in the case of black women: those from homes in which the mother worked are more likely to have permissive views (38 versus 27 percent). Among white women such a difference does not exist, although those whose mothers were employed as white-collar workers may be slightly more likely to have permissive views than those whose mothers worked in other occupations or did not work at all.

The way in which married women personally react to housekeeping and child-rearing activities appears to be related in a consistent manner with their views as to the propriety of mothers in general working outside the home. That is, women who profess to like these domestic activities are less likely to feel that mothers should be in the labor force. Among white women, for example, only a fifth of those who say they very much like to keep house have permissive attitudes toward employment, in contrast with a third of those who are either ambivalent toward or dislike housework (Table 2.27). Relatively few women report that they dislike caring for children; but if all those who express something less than the highest degree of enthusiasm for such activity are grouped together, they manifest a somewhat greater degree of tolerance to a mother's employment than those who say they like caring for children very much (28 versus 21 percent). The pattern in the case of the black women is basically similar, but not quite so pronounced nor so consistent.

Table 2.27 Proportion of Married Respondents with Permissive Attitude toward Employment of Mothers, by Attitude toward Homemaking Activities and Color

Homemaking activities	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent permissive	Total number (thousands)	Percent permissive
Attitude toward keeping house				
Like it very much	6,877	19	862	33
Like it somewhat	4,514	23	389	38
Undecided or dislike it	2,011	33	145	28
Total or average	13,442	22	1,404	34
Attitude toward child care				
Like it very much	10,068	21	1,039	33
Other	3,287	28	353	36
Total or average	13,442	22	1,404	34

VI SUMMARY

In interpreting the labor market behavior and experience of women 30 to 44 years of age, marital and family status is of major importance. Five out of every six women in this age group are married and living with their husbands, and nearly seven out of eight, in addition, have school-age or preschool-age children in their care. Even among those not currently married, nearly three-fifths have children under 18 years of age living with them.

Black women and white women differ with respect to a number of characteristics that are likely to have a bearing on labor market experience. To begin with, the black women in our sample are slightly younger, on average, than their white counterparts. They are considerably less likely than white women to be married. If married, black women are somewhat less likely than white to have children under 18 living at home, but if not married in the survey week, are considerably more likely than white women to have such children in their care.

In terms of marital history, black women in this age cohort married at an earlier age than white, on average, and are more likely than white women to have married more than once. The interval between marriage and birth of first child is shorter for blacks than for whites, and the number of children ever born is somewhat larger.

Black women are more likely than white women to have lived in broken homes during their adolescence and to have lived on farms. They are much less likely than white women to have come from homes headed by white-collar workers. Black women 30 to 44 years of age labor under serious educational disadvantages relative to white women as measured by years of schooling. They are also somewhat less likely to have had occupational training outside regular school and to hold certificates for the practice of such professions as teaching or nursing, although the differences between the two color groups in these respects are not as great as in years of formal schooling. Black women, on the other hand, are more likely than white women to have certificates required for the practice of trades (e.g., beautician, etc.).

Yet, while they are thus in general less well prepared than white women for the world of work, black women have greater pressures inducing them to enter the labor market. Those who are married are more likely than their white counterparts to have husbands who are either unable to work at all or who, for other reasons, are employed less than full time during the year. Relatively, more than twice as many black women as white women live in households with other family members where total annual income, exclusive of their own earnings, is under $3,000. Finally, when asked for their opinion, black women are more apt than white women to accept the propriety of labor force participation by married women with school-age children.

Within color groups there are also a number of interrelationships among variables that are hypothesized to affect labor market behavior. For example, even within the relatively narrow age limits covered by the present survey, there are relationships between age on the one hand, and family status, marital history, education, and health on the other. The oldest five-year age group of women (40 to 44 years) are less likely than the youngest group (30 to 34) to have children under 18 at home, and much less likely to have preschool-age youngsters. The older women are somewhat more likely to have married at a later age and to have had a longer interval between marriage and birth of first child than the younger women. All of these characteristics may be presumed to give the older women some labor market advantages relative to women their junior. On the other side of the ledger, the older women tend to suffer more health problems and to be less well educated than those who are younger.

Because of the small number of women in the sample in marital status categories other than "married," we shall have to confine the subsequent tabular analysis in large measure to those who are married. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that never-married women tend to report somewhat greater health problems than the married group. At the same time, the never married are also considerably more likely to have college degrees than those who are or have been married. This is especially true among the white women.

There is considerable variation in the views married women hold about whether it is appropriate for mothers with children between 6 and 12 years of age to work outside the home. The sources of this variation are not entirely clear, but there is a fairly strong association with educational attainment and with the woman's perception of her husband's attitude. Highly educated women are much more likely to take a permissive view concerning labor force participation by mothers than poorly educated women. Women who report that their husbands look with favor on their working--or would favor their taking a job--are much more likely to have permissive views than those who report that their husbands frown on their labor force participation.

It is noteworthy that, with only a few exceptions, the personal circumstances of women that might operate to induce or discourage their labor market participation are not associated with their expressed attitudes on this question. For instance, whether the woman currently has young children in the home is unrelated to her attitude. This is a very important finding which suggests that this attitudinal variable reflects something more than a woman's actual activity at the moment. The exceptions to the generalization are the less permissive attitudes of women who have had six or more children and those whose own health prevents their working and the more permissive attitudes of women (especially among the blacks) with husbands who either cannot work or who work irregularly.

CHAPTER THREE*

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

Women have considerable discretion with respect to labor market activity. One reason is that their nonparticipation in the labor force is socially acceptable, and a second, related reason is that their work around the home is valuable to the family (e.g., raising children and homemaking). The differential between potential income from employment and the value of services in the home is, on the average, smaller for women than it is for men. A considerable amount of theory and evidence on the labor force participation of women has already been produced by other investigators.[1] It is well known, for example, that labor force participation of women is strongly affected by their marital status, being lowest among those who are married and living with their husbands. Moreover, it is known that among married women participation is (1) adversely affected by the presence of young children; (2) inversely related to level of family income without the wife's earnings; and (3) positively related to the wife's level of educational attainment and position in the occupational hierarchy. Finally, recent evidence has demonstrated that the labor force participation of married women is likely to be lower in areas of high unemployment than in areas of low unemployment. The findings of the present study with respect to these variables support these generalizations and are presented in tables in the appendix to this chapter.

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* This chapter was written by Karl Egge and Jack Meyer.

[1] See, for example, Gertrude Bancroft, _The American Labor Force: Its Changing Growth and Composition_ (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958); William Bowen and T. A. Finegan, _The Economics of Labor Force Participation_ (Princeton University Press, 1969); Glen Cain, _Married Women in the Labor Force_ (University of Chicago Press, 1966); Clarence D. Long, _The Labor Force Under Changing Income and Employment_ (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1958); Gertrude Bancroft McNally, "Patterns of Female Labor Force Activity," _Industrial Relations_, May 1968; Jacob Mincer, "Labor Force Participation of Married Women," in _Aspects of Labor Economics_ (Princeton University Press for the National Bureau of Economic Research, 1962), pp. 63-106, and his article "Labor Force Participation and Unemployment," in R. A. Gordon and M. S. Gordon, eds., _Prosperity and Unemployment_ (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), pp. 73-112; and Malcolm S. Cohen, "Married Women in the Labor Force: An Analysis of Participation Rates," _Monthly Labor Review_ (October 1969), pp. 31-35.

In the body of the chapter we focus exclusively on variables whose relationship to labor force participation has been investigated less frequently. Moreover, we relate these variables to several measures of labor force participation. Labor force status in the survey week and number of weeks in the labor force during the calendar year 1966 are used as measures of current participation. In addition, lifetime participation is measured by the fraction of years since the respondent last attended school that she was in the labor force at least six months. Finally, there are measures of "potential" future labor force participation based on responses to (1) a question asked employed women concerning a hypothetical job loss; (2) a question asked women out of the labor force concerning a hypothetical job offer; and (3) a question asked all respondents regarding labor force plans five years in the future. The "intensity" of a woman's survey week participation, measured in terms of hours of work per week, is examined in the next chapter.

The first section of this chapter presents a brief description of the current labor force and employment status of the respondents. In Section II, the conceptual framework for analyzing labor market participation is described. Thereafter, the correlates of current labor force participation, lifetime participation, and prospective labor market activity are examined in turn in Sections III, IV, and V. Section VI presents a brief summary of major findings.

I CURRENT LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

Among both white and black women 30 to 44 years of age, marital status and the presence or absence of children at home have a rather dramatic effect on labor force participation (Table 3.1). In the case of both married and nonmarried women,[2] the presence of at least one child under six years of age considerably reduces the likelihood that a woman will be in the labor force. Within each color and marital status category, women with no children under 18 years of age are more likely to be in the labor force than women with children at home. Regardless of the presence or absence of children, however, simply being married and living with a husband also reduces the labor force participation of women, albeit more noticeably in the case of whites than blacks. While at the time of the survey, 43 percent of married white women living with their husbands were in the labor force, the

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[2] Unless otherwise noted, "married" is used in this report to designate married women living with their husbands. "Nonmarried includes all other marital status categories: married, husband absent; never-married; widowed; divorced; and separated. These categories have been combined in most tables because there are not sufficient numbers of sample cases in the individual categories to permit reliable analysis of the disaggregated data.

Table 3.1 Labor Force Participation and Unemployment in Survey Week 1967 and during 1966, by Marital Status, Ages of Children Living at Home, and Color

Marital status of respondent and ages of children living at home	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate in survey week	Number in labor force at some time in 1966 as percent of total	Unemployment rate in survey week	Weeks unemployed as percent of weeks in labor force in 1966	Number with some unemployment in 1966 (thousands)	Number with some unemployment as percent of number in labor force in 1966	Weeks of unemployment in 1966 per number with some unemployment
	WHITES							
Married	13,442	43.2	51.4	4.2	2.3	711	10	8
No children under 18	1,676	65.5	72.0	2.2	2.2	129	11	9
Children 6-17, none younger	6,539	50.5	59.9	3.7	2.1	361	9	9
Children under 6	5,227	26.9	34.1	6.6	2.7	222	12	7
Nonmarried	2,117	76.1	82.3	3.4	2.2	241	14	7
No children under 18	1,037	86.9	90.5	2.7	1.4	105	11	6
Children 6-17, none younger	784	72.5	81.6	3.7	2.5	102	16	7
Children under 6	296	47.0	55.1	7.2	5.5	34	21	10
	BLACKS							
Married	1,404	60.4	70.8	7.9	4.9	159	16	18
No children under 18	247	72.9	78.5	3.3	4.9	23	12	18
Children 6-17, none younger	587	69.0	79.2	8.4	3.8	55	12	14
Children under 6	569	45.9	58.7	10.3	7.1	80	24	10
Nonmarried	704	72.9	80.8	8.0	4.1	88	16	11
No children under 18	196	79.7	86.7	4.4	2.1	14	8	11
Children 6-17, none younger	301	78.2	82.0	8.5	4.6	34	14	14
Children under 6	206	58.7	73.3	11.5	5.8	39	26	8

same was true of 76 percent of the nonmarried. Among black women, this difference was only 13 percentage points; three-fifths of the married and nearly three-fourths of the nonmarried were in the labor force at the time of the survey.

Unemployment is by no means an insignificant problem among adult women. Approximately 4 percent of the white women in the sample were unemployed at the time of the survey. This compares with nearly 8 percent of the blacks.[3] As anticipated, survey week unemployment is systematically related to the presence and ages of children living at home. Women with children under six years of age consistently report higher unemployment than do women with older children, while those with no children under 18 are least likely to be unemployed. In general, women without children tend to be more firmly attached to the labor force and to have more job seniority than other women. In contrast, women in the labor force who have young children more frequently are in the process of reestablishing their positions in the working world. For this reason, the unemployment pattern evident in Table 3.1 is hardly surprising.

A large percentage of those with labor force experience in 1966 experienced some unemployment during that year. Fully one-fourth of all black women with children under six years of age reported such unemployment. Nevertheless, among married women of both colors, the average duration of unemployment in 1966 was shorter among those with young children than among others. This pattern suggests that the unemployment of women with preschool children very often may be of a frictional character, probably related to the process of readjustment to the work force.

The relatively small number of sample cases of women who experienced unemployment in the survey week prevents a thorough tabular analysis of their characteristics, controlled for marital and family characteristics. While the number of women reporting some unemployment in 1966 is considerably larger, there are still too few cases to say much about the problem. Therefore, a detailed exploration of unemployment experience will be delayed until a subsequent survey, when the longer time period under consideration undoubtedly will afford a larger number of relevant observations.

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[3] Although the unemployment rate among white women is comparable to the rate reported on the basis of the much larger CPS sample for May 1967 (the time of the survey), the 8 percent rate among black women in our sample is somewhat higher than the official estimates. The difference, however, may easily be attributable to sampling error. See U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Handbook of Labor Statistics 1968 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1968), pp. 97-99.

II CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Model of Labor Force Participation

The conceptual framework or model generally employed in studies of labor force participation considers the family as the basic unit of analysis.[4] It is assumed that an individual's (particularly a woman's) decision to work outside the home is based on both economic considerations and differences within and among families in attitudes toward and ability to work. Bowen and Finegan have grouped the numerous factors thought to influence a person's labor force participation into four categories: (1) attitudes toward work; (2) expected rate of earnings in the labor market; (3) the implicit value to the family of nonlabor market activity (e.g., services at home); and (4) the family's financial and human resources. To illustrate, the model suggests that, other things being equal, the probability of labor force participation by a woman will be higher (1) the more positive her attitude toward working outside the home; (2) the higher the wage rate she can command in the labor market; (3) the fewer the number of children requiring care at home; and (4) the lower the net assets of the family.

Explanatory Variables and Hypotheses

As has been indicated, the analysis in this chapter is confined to an examination of the influence on labor force participation of a number of variables that have not been accorded much attention in previous research. A description of these variables and of their expected effects on labor force participation follows.

Respondent's health The existence of a health problem and its duration are two variables which may operate either to increase or to decrease participation. A woman in poor health may be less likely to be in the labor force because her expected market earnings are lower than a woman without a health problem or simply because she is unable to work. It is also likely that work outside the home would aggravate many health conditions, although in some cases "work" may have beneficial effects. On the other hand, if certain types of health problems require extraordinary expenditures for health services without seriously impeding ability to work, they may actually stimulate labor force participation.

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[4] In this regard an individual living alone is treated as a "single-person family."

Two measures of the respondent's health are used in the analysis: self-rating of her health and reported limitations of health or physical conditions affecting work. Both of these, of course, are subjective and may be only imperfectly related to "actual" health condition.[5]

Health of husband and of other members of household If the woman's husband or any other family member has a health problem, again there is the possibility of two opposite effects. First, to the extent that the implicit value of her work at home (caring for the unhealthy family member) rises relative to her expected earnings from working at a job, there may be a negative effect on participation. Second, the drain on the family's financial resources (either via lower earnings of these other members or through increased health-related expenditures) may induce her to seek or hold a job--a positive effect.[6]

Occupational training Controlling for level of educational attainment, we would expect that occupational training outside of regular school, possession of a professional or trade certificate, or having pursued a commercial or vocational program while attending high school would be positively related to labor force participation. The existence of specially-developed skills should not only enhance prospects of finding and holding a job but also increase potential earnings. In addition, vocational preparation may evidence a stronger-than-average attachment to the job market.

Family assets In general, we would expect that the greater the net assets of a family, the less need for an adult woman to work. However, because the current level of net assets is often a reflection of past earned income, large net assets may also be a reflection of a favorable disposition toward working and earning income. To the extent that this is the case, we would simply be unable at the present time to measure the net effect on participation of family asset position without a more elaborate multivariate framework.

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[5] We would anticipate that reported health is a better measure of the actual health of women than of men, because men are expected to be in the labor force, whereas there is little or no social pressure for women to work outside the home. Indeed, the opposite is often true for women. Thus, of those out of the labor force, adult men may be more inclined than women to offer poor health as a justification where no "objective" basis exists.

[6] It may be recalled from Chapter 2, p. 34, that more than a fourth of the women who live with other family members with health problems say that this situation has had an influence on their decisions about working. Approximately one in eight report being needed at home, while a comparable proportion say they have to work to meet medical expenses.

Family background Questions were asked each respondent about her family when she was 15 years of age: father's occupation, whether mother worked at that time, with whom the respondent lived, and the size of the community in which she lived. We realize, of course, that early formative influences probably influence participation indirectly through systematic effects on more proximate explanatory variables, particularly since more than 20 years, on average, have elapsed since the women were 15 years of age. Nevertheless, we examine these variables to see whether they are related in any way to measures of participation. Because of the passage of time, we would anticipate a stronger association between formative influences and lifetime participation than between the former and current labor market activity.

Attitudes toward work and home Few studies have examined the relationship between psychological factors and labor force participation. A number of measures designed to tap attitudes toward market work have been included in the present study, and in some cases these indicators may also represent the implicit value of a woman's work in the home. Ceteris paribus, we would expect that women who hold "permissive" attitudes toward the employment of married women with young children would more likely be in the labor force than those who are "ambivalent" or "opposed."[7] It is possible, of course, that a permissive stance on this question may be a reflection of a woman's own participation in the past. While a definitive answer to the question of causal direction may not be possible on the basis of the first survey alone, it is still worthwhile to examine the statistical relationships now. Women also were asked to what extent they like caring for children and housekeeping duties and how they usually spend their time when not working at home or for pay. Our general hypothesis is that, other things the same, there is an inverse relationship between favorable attitudes toward homemaking activities and time spent in the labor force.

Another question with high face validity (but unknown predictive power) concerns whether a woman would work even if she (and her husband) were to receive enough money to live comfortably without working. Since an affirmative answer is suggestive of a definite personal preference for the work role, we hypothesize a positive association between this measure and labor force participation. A final attitudinal measure is the response to a query on how the (married) respondent's husband does (or would) feel about her working. Whatever interpretation is placed on the response, we would anticipate that women who perceive their husbands' attitudes as favorable would be more likely to be in the labor force than those who report unfavorable views. It should be noted that if the respondents' perceptions are accurate, the attitudes of the husbands may be reflecting underlying economic factors. For example, a husband may place high value on his wife's homemaking duties and thus react unfavorably to having her take a job. On the other hand, high consumption standards combined with relatively low family income may lead him to take a generally favorable view of his wife's working. These lines of reasoning, incidentally, point to the difficulty at this point in untangling the influence of strictly attitudinal variables from more traditional economic measures.

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[7] See page 45 of Chapter 2 for details concerning construction of this index.

III CURRENT PARTICIPATION

Health Characteristics

Respondent's health Current labor force participation rates for married women by self-rated health condition and by reported health limitations are presented in Tables 3.2 and 3.3, respectively. White women who report their health as either "excellent" or "good" have a participation rate 7 percentage points higher than those in either "fair" or "poor" health. The comparable difference in participation among married black women is 16 percentage points. In general, the younger the children at home, the smaller the effect of differences in health. It is noteworthy that the overall higher participation rate of black women is not attributable to intercolor differences in health, since the proportion of all black women with fair or poor health is actually 4 percentage points higher than that of all white women. Self-rating of health is related to number of weeks in the labor force in 1966 in the same way as to current labor force participation rate (Table 3.4).

The other measure of health condition shows precisely the opposite relationship with labor force participation for white women but not for blacks. Among married white women who report some limitation on their ability to work, the current labor force participation rate is 9 percentage points higher than among those who report no health constraint (Table 3.3). Although not shown, those with a health limitation worked nearly four weeks more in 1966 than those without a limitation. In the case of blacks, on the other hand, the relationship between reported health limitation and labor force participation is consistent with the relationship between self-rating of health and participation. We have no ready explanation for these perplexing differences. A more detailed analysis when the computer tape becomes available to us will perhaps shed some light on the puzzle.

Husband's health and health of other members of household Married white women who say that ill health either prevents or limits the work that their husbands can perform were in the labor force about eight weeks more during 1966 than women with husbands in good health (Table 3.5). The relationship among black women, however, is almost the reverse; those with husbands whose health prevents working actually were in the labor force nearly 10 weeks less than those whose husbands' health either

Table 3.2 Survey Week Labor Force Participation Rate and Mean Number of Weeks in Labor Force in 1966 of Married Respondents,(a) by Ages of Children Living at Home, Self-Rating of Health, and Color

Ages of children living at home	Health excellent or good		Health fair or poor		Total or average	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
			WHITES			
No children under 18	1,374	70	316	43	1,690	65
Children 6-17, none younger	5,754	52	1,007	40	6,584	50
Children under 6	4,854	27	417	24	5,276	27
Total or average	11,815	44	1,748	37	13,549	43
			BLACKS			
No children under 18	193	78	55	54	248	73
Children 6-17, none younger	454	76	141	47	595	69
Children under 6	493	47	88	44	581	46
Total or average	1,141	63	283	47	1,424	61

(a) Includes only respondents who are married at the time of the survey (including those not living with husbands).

Table 3.3 Survey Week Labor Force Participation Rate of Married Respondents,[(a)] by Ages of Children Living at Home, Effect of Health on Work, and Color

Ages of children living at home	Health limits work		Health does not limit work		Total or average	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
	WHITES					
No children under 18	264	70	1,278	70	1,690	65
Children 6-17, none younger	845	55	5,255	53	6,584	50
Children under 6	398	38	4,616	27	5,276	27
Total or average	1,508	53	11,149	44	13,549	43
	BLACKS					
No children under 18	37	56	191	83	248	73
Children 6-17, none younger	82	57	476	75	595	69
Children under 6	68	59	485	47	581	46
Total or average	187	58	1,153	64	1,424	61

(a) Includes only respondents who are married at the time of the survey (including those not living with husbands).

(b) Includes respondents whose health limits housework, and those whose health prevents them from working, not shown separately.

Table 3.4 Mean Number of Weeks in Labor Force in 1966 of Respondents with Work Experience, by Self-Rating of Health, Marital Status, and Color

Self-rating of health	Married		Nonmarried	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force
	WHITES			
Excellent, good	11,492	20.2	1,747	40.1
Fair, poor	1,679	16.3	327	22.0
Total or average	13,442	19.7	2,117	37.2
	BLACKS			
Excellent, good	1,100	30.2	482	39.8
Fair, poor	271	21.3	199	18.6
Total or average	1,404	28.5	704	33.8

Table 3.5 Mean Number of Weeks in Labor Force in 1966 of Married Respondents with Work Experience, by Selected Health Characteristics of Other Family Members, Ages of Children Living at Home, and Color(a)

Selected characteristic	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force
Health of husband	13,442	19.7	1,404	28.5
Health prevents working	277	26.4	67	19.7
Health limits kind or amount of work	1,315	26.7	107	30.0
Health does not limit work	11,815	18.8	1,228	28.8
Whether any family member other than husband has a health problem				
No children under 18	553	31.8	92	35.5
Yes	129	31.7	17	(b)
No	424	31.8	75	35.8
Children 6-17, none younger	6,539	23.3	587	34.3
Yes	773	21.8	78	30.5
No	5,758	23.4	509	34.9
Children under 6	5,227	11.3	569	19.7
Yes	452	9.6	42	22.2
No	4,756	11.5	528	19.6
Total or average	12,317	18.7	1,249	27.7
Yes	1,354	18.7	136	28.5
No	10,937	18.7	1,113	27.7

(a) Includes only respondents with family members other than husband in the household.

(b) Base too small to compute mean.

limits their work or has no effect and there is virtually no difference between those whose husbands have a health limitation and those with husbands in good health. This intercolor difference may reflect cultural variation in family styles, differential discrimination in employment by color and sex, differences in the general availability of jobs, or some other factor, such as source of income, yet to be examined.

There is no consistent association between participation and whether any family member other than the husband has a health problem. Controlling for the age distribution of children at home, the survey week participation rates of white women with at least one family member (other than husband) in ill health are slightly higher than rates among women with no such family members in poor health. However, when the total work record for 1966 is examined, there is no consistent relationship (Table 3.5). In general, it appears that knowledge of family health problems, aside from those of the husband, adds little to our understanding of the labor force participation of women.

Occupational Training

Whether the respondent took typing or shorthand shows no substantial association with the number of weeks in the labor force by white women during 1966, although there is a slight relationship in the expected direction for those married women with no children under six years of age. However, black women who took these courses were in the labor force between two and three weeks more during 1966 than those who did not. Here again, the relationship exists only for those without preschool children (Table 3.6). The expected positive relationship between participation and professional or trade certification is evident in Table 3.7. For example, married white women with professional certificates were in the labor force over three weeks more in 1966 than women without certificates; for married black women the difference was five weeks. A third and more general measure of training is represented by the response to the question concerning acquisition of any type of training outside regular school and, if appropriate, how long it had lasted (Table 3.8). On the basis of survey week participation rates, there are no differences among married white women between those with (1) no training; (2) less than six months of training; or (3) more than six months of training. However, the data on mean number of weeks in the labor force in 1966 suggest that married whites with some training may have been in the labor force slightly longer than those without training and that nonmarried white women with professional training were in the labor force almost eight weeks longer than those with no training. The positive association of training with both measures of labor force participation is more evident among married blacks than married whites.

Table 3.6 Mean Number of Weeks in Labor Force in 1966 of Respondents Who Completed at Least Three Years of High School, by Marital Status, Ages of Children Living at Home, Whether Respondent Had Typing or Shorthand Training, and Color

Ages of children living at home and whether respondent had typing or shorthand training	Married		Nonmarried	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force
	WHITES			
No children under 18	1,405	32.8	896	44.8
No	489	31.2	294	45.9
Yes	912	33.7	592	44.1
Children 6-17, none younger	5,823	23.7	688	36.4
No	1,666	22.8	213	37.8
Yes	4,113	24.2	465	35.7
Children under 6	4,787	11.1	215	24.9
No	1,200	11.1	74	(a)
Yes	3,546	11.2	135	23.4
Total or average	12,016	19.8	1,799	39.2
No	3,755	19.9	581	40.4
Yes	8,571	19.8	1,194	38.4
	BLACKS			
No children under 18	194	36.6	127	41.9
No	123	35.0	80	40.3
Yes	69	39.8	41	43.7
Children 6-17, none younger	454	36.1	223	37.1
No	275	34.1	157	36.1
Yes	177	39.1	64	40.2
Children under 6	433	18.8	151	29.4
No	269	19.9	110	29.6
Yes	160	17.2	41	29.0
Total or average	1,080	29.3	500	36.0
No	667	28.5	346	35.0
Yes	404	30.8	151	38.4

(a) Base too small to compute mean weeks.

Table 3.7 Mean Number of Weeks in Labor Force in 1966, by Professional or Trade Certification, Marital Status, and Color

Professional or trade certification	Married		Nonmarried	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force
	WHITES			
Yes, professional	1,336	22.7	251	43.7
Yes, trade	517	22.7	125	35.3
No	11,491	19.1	1,726	36.2
Total or average	13,442	19.7	2,117	37.2
	BLACKS			
Yes, professional	98	33.7	44	39.9
Yes, trade	109	31.0	62	39.0
No	1,181	27.7	595	32.9
Total or average	1,404	28.5	704	33.8

Table 3.8 Survey Week Labor Force Participation Rate and Mean Number of Weeks in Labor Force in 1966, by Marital Status, Extent of Occupational Training outside Regular School, and Color

Extent of occupational training outside regular school	Married			Nonmarried	
	Total number (thousands)	Survey week labor force participation rate	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force
	WHITES				
None	8,709	43	19.3	1,320	35.2
Less than 6 months	2,267	43	20.7	309	38.8
6 months or more	1,957	43	20.1	388	41.7
Total or average	13,442	43	19.7	2,117	37.2
	BLACKS				
None	932	56	27.0	512	32.3
Less than 6 months	151	83	37.8	59	37.4
6 months or more	275	66	30.3	109	37.1
Total or average	1,404	61	28.5	704	33.8

Net Family Assets

Net family assets are defined as the difference between the value of all the family's assets (by the respondent's estimate) and the value of the family's debts, including mortgages. According to the reasoning outlined earlier, we should not be surprised by either a positive or a negative simple relationship between net assets and labor force participation. Actually the variation in mean number of weeks in the labor force in 1966 according to net assets is quite small among married women of both color groups, and the relationship is erratic when ages of children are controlled (Table 3.9). Among nonmarried women of both colors, although the relationship between participation and net assets is irregular, those with less than $1,000 tend to have been in the labor force fewer weeks in 1966 than those who were financially better off.

Family Background

Is the labor force participation of a woman 30 to 44 years of age significantly affected by whether she lived with both parents or with her mother alone when she was 15 years old? Table 3.10 indicates that the answer is generally "no." Although the data are not shown here, whether the respondent's mother worked when the respondent was 15 years old also does not appear to make much difference in current labor force participation. Moreover, with the possible exception of higher-than-average participation among women who lived in rural areas when 15 years old, there is very little variation in labor force participation either in the survey week or in the year 1966 related to residence as a teenager--farm, town, small city, or large city. Thus, the formative influences examined in this study have had very little or no direct impact on labor force participation with the passage of 20 years or so. Whether these factors have a direct effect on participation at earlier ages remains an open question. Hopefully, it can be answered, at least in part, by data on young women 14 to 24 years of age.[8]

Attitudes toward Work and Home

The survey week labor force participation rate of married white women who express "permissive" attitudes toward the employment of mothers is nearly 25 percentage points higher than the rate for women who are "opposed" to mothers working (Table 3.11). Among married blacks, the difference is only 12 percentage points. These relationships hold within each of the three age-of-children categories. They are also evident when labor force participation is measured by weeks in the labor force during 1966. White women with favorable attitudes toward employment of mothers were in the labor force an average of more than 25 weeks in

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[8] The first report on young women will be forthcoming later in 1970.

Table 3.9 Mean Number of Weeks in Labor Force in 1966, by Total Net Assets, Marital Status, Ages of Children Living at Home, and Color

Ages of children living at home and total net assets	WHITES				BLACKS			
	Married		Nonmarried		Married		Nonmarried	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force
No children under 18	1,676	31.8	1,037	42.8	247	34.7	196	39.0
Less than $ 1,000	236	30.9	356	39.4	101	35.7	128	36.1
$ 1,000 - $ 4,999	142	35.7	100	44.8	21	41.2	8	(a)
$ 5,000 - $ 9,999	185	32.0	29	(a)	15	(a)	12	(a)
$10,000 - $25,000	174	30.2	34	(a)	15	(a)	7	(a)
More than $25,000	330	34.8	212	45.1	25	33.0	8	(a)
Children 6-17, none younger	6,539	23.3	784	35.4	587	34.3	301	34.8
Less than $ 1,000	775	21.1	298	29.7	202	33.1	213	32.9
$ 1,000 - $ 4,999	732	23.8	110	43.7	78	38.9	18	(a)
$ 5,000 - $ 9,999	741	21.3	63	(a)	68	37.4	13	(a)
$10,000 - $25,000	780	23.9	24	(a)	57	32.1	3	(a)
More than $25,000	1,234	24.2	139	34.3	37	30.0	15	(a)
Children under 6	5,227	11.3	296	21.9	569	19.7	206	27.4
Less than $ 1,000	873	11.5	139	20.9	254	22.0	165	26.7
$ 1,000 - $ 4,999	631	9.9	38	(a)	86	20.3	13	(a)
$ 5,000 - $ 9,999	569	12.6	9	(a)	46	22.5	7	(a)
$10,000 - $25,000	614	11.6	19	(a)	30	21.3	4	(a)
More than $25,000	1,045	13.0	25	(a)	21	16.5	8	(a)
Total or average	13,442	19.7	2,117	37.2	1,404	28.5	704	33.8
Less than $ 1,000	1,883	17.8	794	30.5	558	28.5	507	31.7
$ 1,000 - $ 4,999	1,505	19.1	248	41.7	185	30.5	39	44.1
$ 5,000 - $ 9,999	1,494	19.3	102	40.9	129	32.2	31	42.8
$10,000 - $25,000	1,568	19.8	77	41.5	101	29.5	13	(a)
More than $25,000	2,609	21.1	376	38.1	83	27.4	31	33.4

(a) Base too small to compute mean weeks.

Table 3.10 Mean Number of Weeks in Labor Force in 1966, by Living Arrangements of Respondent When She Was 15 Years Old, Marital Status, Ages of Children Living at Home, and Color

Ages of children living at home and living arrangements at age 15	Married		Nonmarried	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force
	WHITES			
No children under 18(a)	1,676	31.8	1,037	42.8
Father and mother	1,255	32.8	768	42.3
Mother	146	34.7	154	41.7
Children 6-17, none younger(a)	6,539	23.3	784	35.4
Father and mother	5,093	23.9	558	35.5
Mother	691	20.0	105	37.6
Children under 6(a)	5,227	11.3	296	21.9
Father and mother	4,209	11.2	221	20.8
Mother	468	11.8	37	(b)
Total or average(a)	13,442	19.7	2,117	37.2
Father and mother	10,558	19.9	1,547	36.8
Mother	1,306	18.7	296	39.4
	BLACKS			
No children under 18(a)	247	34.7	196	39.0
Father and mother	146	36.2	99	43.6
Mother	46	30.9	38	40.2
Children 6-17, none younger(a)	587	34.3	301	34.8
Father and mother	353	35.4	143	36.4
Mother	98	29.1	74	36.0
Children under 6(a)	569	19.7	206	27.4
Father and mother	318	21.6	88	25.3
Mother	82	18.1	59	31.6
Total or average(a)	1,404	28.5	704	33.8
Father and mother	817	30.2	330	35.6
Mother	226	25.5	172	35.4

(a) Totals include respondents living in other situations at age 15.
(b) Base too small to compute mean weeks.

Table 3.11 Labor Force Participation Rate of Married Respondents by Ages of Children Living at Home, Selected Attitudinal Measures and Color

Selected attitudinal measure	No children under 18		Children 6 to 17, none younger		Children under 6		Total or average	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
	WHITES							
Attitude toward employment of mothers[a]								
Permissive	362	74	1,476	67	1,198	41	3,035	58
Opposed	668	62	2,471	37	1,728	16	4,867	33
Attitude toward keeping house								
Likes it	1,437	64	5,529	50	4,426	26	11,391	42
Dislikes it	224	76	940	54	772	30	1,936	47
Sparetime activities other than job or house								
Family and house related	817	62	3,609	49	3,237	26	7,663	41
Other activities at home	593	68	1,946	53	1,404	29	3,943	47
Social activities, etc.	244	70	857	46	516	24	1,615	43
Total or average	1,676	66	6,539	50	5,227	27	13,442	43
	BLACKS							
Attitude toward employment of mothers[a]								
Permissive	79	86	212	74	187	59	478	70
Opposed	104	69	145	67	131	41	380	58
Attitude toward keeping house								
Likes it	217	72	523	68	512	46	1,251	60
Dislikes it	24	83	57	84	57	42	138	65
Sparetime activities other than job or house								
Family and house related	100	73	316	70	315	46	732	60
Other activities at home	84	68	187	66	185	44	456	57
Social activities, etc.	60	80	77	71	62	48	199	67
Total or average	247	73	587	69	569	46	1,404	60

(a) Includes only respondents who are married at the time of the survey (including those not living with husbands).

1966 compared to less than 16 weeks by those with unfavorable attitudes (Table 3.12). As noted previously, we cannot be certain at this point whether attitudes on this matter govern labor force activity or simply reflect the extent of present or past labor market activity. In any case, the relationship is a strong one and may be predictive of labor force behavior over time.

Labor force participation rates differ in the expected direction between those women who like and those who dislike housekeeping activities. Regardless of color, women who express a dislike for keeping house have a participation rate about 5 percentage points higher than those who like this activity (Table 3.11). Within each age-of-children category, the difference in weeks in the labor force between those who dislike and those who like housework ranges between one and six weeks for whites and between five and seven weeks for blacks (Table 3.12). Although their number is very small, women who say that they dislike caring for children were in the labor force several weeks more during 1966 than those who report liking child care.

Women in the sample were asked to state which activities engage most of their time when not doing housework or working for pay. Answers were placed in four categories; the three containing the vast majority of the women are shown in Table 3.11.[9] We expected lowest participation rates among women who spend much of their leisure time cooking and sewing, because such women manifest a very positive attitude toward work usually done in the home. While the differences are not large, married white women who spend their leisure time in family- or housekeeping-related activities are less likely to be in the labor force than women in the other two categories shown in Table 3.11. The same is not true, however, among black women.

The most striking attitudinal correlate of current participation in the labor force that we have examined is whether a woman thinks her husband reacts favorably or unfavorably to the idea of her working.[10] On the average, married white women who report their husbands' attitudes as favorable were in the labor force almost 33 weeks in 1966, compared to only nine weeks among those women reporting unfavorable attitudes. For black women, average weeks in the labor force were 34 and 20 weeks,

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[9] In more detail, the four categories are: family or housekeeping related activities (e.g., cooking and sewing); other activities at home (e.g., reading and watching television); entertainment, sports, social activities away from home; and clubs, education, church, and the like.

[10] Women in the labor force were asked: "How does your husband feel about your working?" Women out of the labor force were asked: "How do you think your husband would feel about your working now...?"

Table 3.12 Mean Number of Weeks Worked in 1966 by Married Respondents, by Selected Attitudinal Measures, Ages of Children Living at Home, and Color

Selected attitudinal measure	No children under 18		Children 6-17, none younger		Children under 6		Total or average	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force
				WHITES				
Husband's attitude toward working wife								
Favorable	655	41.6	2,438	34.3	1,148	24.0	4,239	32.6
Unfavorable	527	18.3	2,511	11.7	3,239	5.3	6,276	9.0
Attitude toward employment of mothers								
Permissive	353	36.3	1,471	29.5	1,184	16.9	3,008	25.3
Opposed	664	29.1	2,453	17.5	1,707	7.2	4,824	15.5
Attitude toward caring for children								
Likes it	1,319	31.0	6,205	23.4	5,082	11.2	12,607	19.2
Dislikes it	169	34.9	267	22.3	120	14.2	556	24.4
Attitude toward keeping house								
Likes it	1,437	31.1	5,529	22.8	4,426	11.1	11,391	19.4
Dislikes it	224	37.0	940	25.7	772	12.0	1,936	21.6
Total or average	1,676	31.8	6,539	23.3	5,227	11.3	13,442	19.7
				BLACKS				
Husband's attitude toward working wife								
Favorable	94	38.8	281	40.1	245	26.0	621	34.4
Unfavorable	61	24.1	173	26.7	213	12.4	446	19.6
Attitude toward employment of mothers								
Permissive	78	42.3	211	36.1	183	24.9	472	32.8
Opposed	104	31.8	144	34.5	125	17.9	372	28.2
Attitude toward caring for children								
Likes it	208	35.4	551	34.3	549	19.4	1,309	28.2
Dislikes it	26	26.8	33	36.9	18	(a)	77	31.7
Attitude toward keeping house								
Likes it	217	33.9	523	33.7	512	19.3	1,251	27.9
Dislikes it	24	40.5	57	40.2	57	24.2	138	33.8
Total or average	247	34.7	587	34.3	569	19.7	1,404	28.5

(a) Base too small to calculate mean weeks in labor force.

respectively (Table 3.12). This association certainly supports the assumption that labor force participation decisions frequently are made within a family context. One could infer that the husband's attitude has a powerful causal effect on a typical wife's inclination to work outside the home. However, the direction of causation could be just the reverse, or the consistency may simply reflect a desire to report family harmony rather than discord on the subject. In any case, this variable will definitely be investigated in more detail at a later date.[11]

IV LIFETIME LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

In this section we examine the association of several explanatory variables with the extent of the respondents' labor force participation since leaving school.[12] Because the effect of the number and spacing of children during a woman's lifetime has been shown to be an important factor influencing the timing and amount of labor force participation,[13] we control for whether the respondent was ever married and for whether there were ever children.

Marital and Childbearing History

The simple association between our measure of lifetime labor force participation and number of children ever born is very pronounced (Table 3.13). Among whites, the average never-married woman who has never had a child has been in the labor force at least a half-year in nine out of ten years since leaving school. A rough estimate of the direct effect of marriage on participation among white women in this cohort is seen by contrasting the 90 percent lifetime participation rate for never-married, childless women with the 74 percent rate for ever-married, childless women. Similarly, the effect of one child on lifetime participation among ever-married women whose one child is either at least 18 years old or no longer living at home is to reduce by 28 percentage points among whites and 20 percentage points among blacks the fraction of years they have been in the labor force.

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[11] If this variable is not highly related to those explanatory variables used by most investigators of labor force participation among married women--and our analysis in Chapter 2 suggests that it is not--we would hypothesize that its inclusion in a regression of participation rates (similar to that reported by Cohen, and Bowen and Finegan using individual observations) would help explain a large proportion of the variance in participation rates among women. In most regressions using individual observations, the variation in labor force participation explained by the usual set of independent variables generally is less than 20 percent.

[12] Specifically, the fraction of years since the respondent last attended "regular" school that she was in the labor force at least six months.

[13] See, for example, James A. Sweet, "Family Composition and the Labor Force Activity of American Wives," Demography (forthcoming May 1970).

Table 3.13 Average Labor Force Participation Rate since Leaving School(a) of Respondents with Work Experience, by Marital and Family Status, Number of Children Ever Lived with Respondent, and Color

Marital and family status and average labor force participation rate	None	1 child	2-3 children	4 or more children	Total or average
			WHITES		
Never married, no children ever					
Average participation rate	90	- -	- -	- -	90
Total number (thousands)	679	0	0	0	679
Ever married, no children under 18 living at home					
Average participation rate	74	46	31	(b)	60
Total number (thousands)	930	205	259	47	1,441
Ever married, with children under 18 living at home					
Average participation rate	- -	50	36	27	34
Total number (thousands)	0	1,324	6,992	4,459	12,784
			BLACKS		
Never married, no children ever					
Average participation rate	75	- -	- -	- -	75
Total number (thousands)	74	0	0	0	74
Ever married, no children under 18 living at home					
Average participation rate	68	48	36	(b)	58
Total number (thousands)	152	76	51	6	284
Ever married, with children under 18 living at home					
Average participation rate	- -	67	49	37	45
Total number (thousands)	0	161	598	848	1,607

(a) The labor force participation rate since leaving school is defined as the number of years in which the respondent worked at least six months since last attended school divided by total number of years since last attended school. The average is an arithmetic mean computed from grouped data.

(b) Rate not shown when there are fewer than 20 sample cases.

Table 3.13 also shows, somewhat surprisingly, that for both white and black women with either one child or two to three children, those whose children are still under 18 years of age and living at home have spent a larger proportion of time in the labor force than their counterparts whose children are either over 18 or have left home. This result may be attributable to the spacing of children during the years since the respondents left school. On the other hand, it is possible that the differences reflect the well-established secular increase in labor force participation on the part of women with children. Table 3.13 also suggests that having children places less of a constraint on the labor force participation of black women than white. Among women who have never had children, however, whites have spent more time in the labor force than blacks. The reason for this anomaly, which could be attributable to sampling error, will be examined later in a more refined multivariate framework.

Commitment to Work

The response to whether the respondent would continue to work if she (and her husband) had enough money to live comfortably without working is associated, as anticipated, with the lifetime measure of labor force participation (Table 3.14). Among ever-married women with children under 18 years of age, the average percentage of years in the labor force is about 4 to 5 points higher for those who say they would continue working than for those who say they would not. Without controls for income and for the number and ages of children, however, it is not possible to be entirely confident as to the relationship between commitment to work and labor force participation.

Attitudes toward Work and Home

Married women who dislike housework and who have no children under 18 years of age living at home have spent more years in the labor force since they last attended school than their counterparts who say that they like housework (Table 3.15). However, there is little difference by attitude in the fraction of years worked among married women with one or more children under 18 years of age. The respondents' attitudes toward the employment of mothers bear a stronger relationship with lifetime labor force participation. Among adult white women, those with a permissive view have a lifetime participation rate about 10 percentage points higher than women who are opposed to mothers working. Among black women, the difference is smaller for women with children under age 18 lving at home (about 5 percentage points); but among those with no children under 18, the difference is 16 percentage points. As indicated before, these relationships are consistent with the proposition that current attitudes are a product of past labor force status. Yet, it may also be that this attitude develops early and exercises a definite influence on labor force participation. Future surveys may add to our understanding of this important correlate of participation.

Table 3.14 Average Labor Force Participation Rate since Leaving School[(a)] of Respondents in the Labor Force, by Commitment to Work,[(b)] Marital and Family Status, and Color

Marital and family status and commitment to work	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Average participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Average participation rate
Never married, no children	640	92	56	86
Yes, would work	470	94	40	88
No, would not work	103	80	13	(c)
Undecided	56	(c)	1	(c)
Ever married, no children under 18	1,027	72	215	70
Yes, would work	696	76	147	70
No, would not work	247	64	56	66
Undecided	64	(c)	12	(c)
Ever married with children under 18	5,735	52	1,047	60
Yes, would work	3,092	54	671	62
No, would not work	2,327	50	317	58
Undecided	229	52	35	57

(a) See Table 3.13, footnote (a).

(b) Response to following question: "If by some chance you (and your husband) were to get enough money to live comfortably without working, do you think that you would work anyway?

(c) Base too small to calculate percent of years in labor force.

Table 3.15 Average Labor Force Participation Rate since Leaving School(a) of Ever-Married Respondents with Work Experience, by Selected Attitudinal Measures, Presence of Children under Age 18 in the Home, and Color

Selected attitudinal measure	Children under 18		No children under 18	
	Total number (thousands)	Average participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Average participation rate
	WHITES			
Attitude toward housekeeping(b)	11,722	34	1,183	59
Like it	9,896	33	1,003	58
Dislike it	1,736	36	165	65
Attitude toward employment of mothers(c)	12,784	34	1,441	60
Permissive	2,927	42	329	67
Opposed	4,506	29	579	56
	BLACKS			
Attitude toward housekeeping(b)	1,159	43	189	57
Like it	1,036	43	163	56
Dislike it	115	42	22	73
Attitude toward employment of mothers(c)	1,607	43	284	58
Permissive	579	48	98	68
Opposed	384	43	103	52

(a) See Table 3.13, footnote (a)
(b) Includes only married respondents.
(c) Total includes those with ambivalent attitudes.

V LABOR FORCE PROPENSITIES

Because the labor force status of women tends to change more frequently than that of men, it is desirable to have some measure of a woman's propensity to be in the labor force, irrespective of her current status. This propensity is measured by reactions to a hypothetical job offer or job loss, and by ascertaining labor force plans for the future. Employed respondents were asked the following question: "If for some reason you were permanently to lose your present job tomorrow, what would you do?" Responses were placed into four categories: (1) take another job I know about; (2) look for work; (3) stay at home; (4) other. Respondents out of the labor force were asked: "If you were offered a job by some employer in this area, do you think you would take it?" Responses were categorized as follows: (1) would accept now; (2) might accept now; (3) work if children grown; (4) work if unusual expense; (5) work if husband disabled; (6) other conditions; (7) would not accept. All respondents were asked: "What do you expect to be doing five years from now--working, staying home, or something else?"

The answers to these questions yield a direct measure of labor force propensities. By our definition, employed women who say they would take another job or look for work if they lost their present jobs are "strongly" attached to the labor force; they are more highly attached to the labor force than employed women who report that they would stay at home if they lost their jobs. Likewise, women out of the labor force who say they would or might accept a job offer are considered more highly attached to the labor force than women who say they would accept a job offer only under circumstances that do not currently prevail. Also, women in and out of the labor force who believe that they will be working in five years have a higher propensity to work in the future than women who believe they will be doing something other than working in five years. As the longitudinal study unfolds, we shall be able to test the predictive power of these measures and to relate such indicators to nonattitudinal factors which also undoubtedly influence labor force participation.

This section seeks to ascertain the correlates of different patterns of response to these questions and to examine their consistency with present and past labor force experience. Irrespective of the actual current labor force status of women, it analyzes their propensities toward labor force participation.

Marital Status and Ages of Children

Current marital status Married women have a weaker propensity to be in the labor force than nonmarried women. Employed married women are much less likely than all other employed women to claim they would take a job or look for work if they lost their jobs (Table 3.16). This difference is almost three times as large among white women as among black, resulting from the fact that married black women are much more likely than married white women to indicate a willingness to seek other work if they were to lose their jobs (82 versus 60 percent).

Table 3.16 Reaction of Employed Respondents to Hypothetical Job Loss, by Marital Status and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Reaction to hypothetical job loss	Married	Nonmarried	Total or average
	WHITES		
Take another job; look for work	60	90	67
Stay home; other response	40	10	33
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	5,565	1,556	7,120
	BLACKS		
Take another job; look for work	82	93	86
Stay home; other response	18	7	14
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	780	472	1,253

Among women who are currently out of the labor force, however, married women of both color groups are about as likely as those who are nonmarried to indicate a willingness to accept a job offer (Table 3.17). We do not, of course, believe that this reflects the "true" independent effect of marital status on labor force propensities. The point is that the universe is here restricted to women currently outside the labor force, and a higher proportion of all nonmarried than married women are already in the labor force.

Among white women, those who are married are substantially less likely than those who are not to believe that they will be working in five years (Table 3.18). Among black women, on the other hand, this relationship does not prevail. In that color group, labor force plans do not vary substantially over marital status categories, although divorced and separated women are somewhat more likely than others to believe they will be working. Black women who are married are much more likely than their white counterparts (65 versus 47 percent) to think that they will be working.

Table 3.17 Reaction of Respondents Who Are Not in Labor Force to Hypothetical Job Offer, by Marital Status and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Reaction to hypothetical job offer	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Married	Nonmarried	Total or average	Married	Nonmarried	Total or average
Would or might accept	35	36	35	57	54	56
Other response	65	64	65	43	46	44
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	7,637	507	8,143	556	191	747

Table 3.18 Labor Force Plans in Five Years, by Marital Status and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Labor force plans in five years	Never married	Married, husband present	Married, husband absent	Widowed	Divorced, separated	Total or average
	WHITES					
Working	69	47	65	60	71	50
Other response	31	53	35	40	29	50
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	753	13,442	117	255	992	15,559
	BLACKS					
Working	66	65	60	61	76	67
Other response	34	35	40	39	24	33
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	152	1,404	26	102	424	2,107

Most of the foregoing evidence indicates that married women have a weaker propensity to be in the labor force than other women. Furthermore, married white women manifest a weaker propensity to be in the labor force than married black women, whereas nonmarried white women are very similar to nonmarried black women in this respect. So far as totals are concerned, black women show a stronger attachment to the labor force by all three measures of propensity. They are more willing to accept a job offer (56 versus 35 percent), more likely to say that they would remain in the labor force if they lost their jobs (86 versus 67 percent), and more likely to believe that they will be working in five years (67 versus 50 percent).

Family income and other economic variables undoubtedly help to explain much of this difference in prospective labor force attachment, but some portion of it is very likely attributable to family and cultural differences between the white and black community. One hypothesis is that married women usually can depend upon their husbands to provide an adequate family income, but that this is more common for white married women than for black married women. There may also be differences between blacks and whites in the availability of care for children while they are not in school. Specifically, extended families or simply the close proximity of neighbors in the black community may help account for the intercolor difference in labor force propensities.[14]

Age composition of children in household Women with young children should have a weaker propensity to be in the labor force than other women, because preschool-age children require care during the day. When the care of children is entrusted to others, there are often costs involved, such as babysitting fees or expenses for services of day-care centers. Some women, of course, may not wish to use the services of others at any conceivable price. Our conceptual framework suggests that any wage for market labor will tend to be less attractive to a woman who must pay these costs in order to work. However, the inhibiting effect of young children on the propensity of whites to be in the labor force should be somewhat greater than it is on the propensity of blacks. Extended families and close neighbors may more often shoulder babysitting tasks for black than white mothers. As will be shown in Chapter 4, the cost of child care (unadjusted for quality differences) tends to be less for blacks than for whites.

There is a consistent relationship in the anticipated direction between ages of children and propensity to be in the labor force (Table 3.19). Married women with children under six years of age are less likely than other married women to express a willingness to accept a job offer, and are less likely to believe they will be working in five years. The differences are more substantial among whites than among blacks.

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[14] See Bowen and Finegan, The Economics of Labor Force Participation, pp. 93-94; Cain, Married Women in the Labor Force, pp. 83, 85-89, 101 ff.

Table 3.19 Selected Measures of Labor Force Propensity of Married Respondents, by Ages of Children Living at Home and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Selected measure	No children under 18	Children 6-17, none younger	Children under 6
		WHITES	
Reaction to hypothetical job offer(a)			
Would or might accept	40	41	28
Other response	60	59	72
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	579	3,235	3,823
Labor force plans in five years			
Working	58	52	43
Other response	42	48	57
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	2,713	7,323	5,523
		BLACKS	
Reaction to hypothetical job offer(a)			
Would or might accept	65	59	54
Other response	35	41	46
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	67	182	308
Labor force plans in five years			
Working	69	71	61
Other response	31	29	39
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	443	888	776

(a) Includes only respondents who are out of the labor force.

Respondent's Health

It is hardly surprising that women who report health problems that currently prevent their working manifest much lower propensities toward labor force participation than those who are currently able to work (Table 3.20). What is surprising, on the other hand, is that women who report that their health limits the amount or kind of work they can do show higher labor force propensities than women without such limitations, on the basis of both the hypothetical job offer question (for both whites and blacks) and the question relating to plans five years hence (for whites only). When self-rating of health is used as the explanatory variable, however, those who report their health as "excellent" or "good" are far more likely than those in "fair" or "poor" health to plan to be in the labor force five years hence (Table 3.21).

Education and Training Characteristics

Years of school completed

On theoretical grounds, it is difficult to know what simple relationship to expect between the propensity to be in the labor force and educational attainment. First of all, the better educated a woman is, the better chance she has of obtaining a job that is high-paying, challenging, and prestigious; therefore, the better educated she is, the greater is the opportunity cost of leisure. Moreover, a high level of education may manifest a strong "taste" for work. However, married women with high educational attainment are likely to be married to men with a commensurate amount of education; as a result, they are likely to have higher family incomes than women with lower educational attainment. Finally, higher education for some women may have expanded a demand for leisure; for others, it undoubtedly has changed attitudes toward children and toward work itself.

When the propensity to be in the labor force is measured by willingness to accept a job offer, there is no systematic relationship to level of educational attainment (Table 3.22). However, on the basis of future labor force plans, there is a positive association between labor force propensity and educational attainment. Within both color groups, women with college educations are somewhat more likely than women with high school educations to believe they will be working in five years; the latter are more likely than women with no high school to think they will be working. The percentage differences, however, are not large.

High school curriculum and occupational training

Among women who are currently out of the labor force, those who pursued vocational or commercial curricula in high school are more likely than others to express a willingness to accept a job offer. Although not shown in a table, occupational training outside school is related in the same way to labor force propensity. In both cases the differences are greater in the case of black women than of white women. For example,

Table 3.20 Selected Measures of Labor Force Propensity, by Effect of Health on Work and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Selected measure	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Health prevents work	Health limits work or housework	Health does not limit work	Health prevents work	Health limits work or housework	Health does not limit work
Reaction to hypothetical job offer[(a)]						
Would or might accept	24	41	35	38	68	58
Other response	76	59	65	62	32	42
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	915	825	6,387	137	116	493
Labor force plans in five years						
Working	21	56	51	37	63	70
Other	79	44	49	63	37	30
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	915	1,853	12,746	137	314	1,653

(a) Includes only respondents who are out of the labor force.

Table 3.21 Labor Force Plans in Five Years, by Self-Rating of Health and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Labor force plans in five years	WHITES				BLACKS			
	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Working	53	50	43	29	72	70	62	35
Other	47	50	57	71	28	30	38	65
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	7,084	6,156	1,656	350	670	912	346	123

Table 3.22 Selected Measures of Labor Force Propensity, by Highest Year of School Completed and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Selected measure	8 years or less	9 to 11 years	12 years	13 years or more
	WHITES			
Reaction to hypothetical job offer[(a)]				
Would or might accept	34	34	35	34
Other response	66	66	65	66
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,120	1,537	3,927	1,536
Labor force plans in five years				
Working	43	49	49	56
Other	57	51	51	44
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,995	3,008	7,475	3,039
	BLACKS			
Reaction to hypothetical job offer[(a)]				
Would or might accept	50	64	56	42
Other response	50	36	44	58
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	243	241	204	57
Labor force plans in five years				
Working	64	69	67	71
Other	36	31	33	29
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	601	653	595	254

(a) Includes only respondents who are out of the labor force.

of white women who are currently out of the labor force, 36 percent of those who had vocational or commercial courses in high school, compared to 32 percent of those who did not, say they would or might accept a job offer. The corresponding percentages among blacks are 72 and 53. Thirty-seven percent of the white women who had some training out of regular school and 33 percent of those who had no such training indicate they would or might accept a job offer. Among blacks these proportions are 64 and 53 percent, respectively.

Attitudes toward Work and Home

There is a strong positive correlation between attitude toward the employment of mothers and propensity to be in the labor force. Among women out of the labor force, a more permissive attitude on this matter is associated with a higher expressed willingness to accept a job offer. The fraction of white women with permissive attitudes who say they would or might accept a job offer is 9 percentage points higher than for those with ambivalent attitudes and 18 percentage points higher than for those with negative feelings (Table 3.23). Among black women, these differences are 9 and 16 percentage points, respectively. In the case of employed women, a permissive attitude is associated with an intention of remaining in the labor force in the face of a job loss. However, the relationship in this case is neither as strong nor as consistent as in the response to a job offer by those out of the labor force.

There is a significant association in the expected direction between attitude toward the employment of mothers and plans for work five years hence. White women who are opposed to labor market activity by mothers are only two-thirds as likely as those who have permissive attitudes to believe they will be working in five years; those women who are ambivalent are more likely than the opposed to plan to be in the labor force, but less likely than the permissive. The same general relationship characterizes black women, although the percentage differences are not so large. Although not shown here, it is noteworthy that this relationship is exclusively a product of the reactions of women who are currently outside the labor force. Attitude toward the employment of mothers makes virtually no difference at all for the five-year plans of women who are now in the labor force; but among white women who are not, those with favorable attitudes are twice as likely as those with unfavorable attitudes to think they will be working in five years. This pattern is of great interest because it suggests that responses to questions on the proper role of mothers are not merely rationalizations of current activity.

On the bases of both the hypothetical job offer question and the hypothetical job loss question, white women who dislike keeping house have a stronger propensity to be in the labor force than those who like housekeeping activities (Table 3.24). The relationship does not exist, however, in the case of the blacks.

Table 3.23 Selected Measures of Labor Force Propensity, by Attitude toward Employment of Mothers and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Selected measure	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Opposed	Ambivalent	Permissive	Opposed	Ambivalent	Permissive
Reaction to hypothetical job offer[a]						
Would or might accept	28	37	46	49	56	65
Other response	72	63	54	51	44	35
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	3,402	3,342	1,373	205	334	204
Reaction to hypothetical job loss[b]						
Take another job; look for work	67	61	73	79	87	89
Stay home; other response	33	39	27	21	13	11
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	2,125	2,856	2,110	302	425	523
Labor force plans in five years						
Working	41	51	61	62	67	71
Other	59	49	39	38	33	29
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	5,635	6,304	3,564	532	810	758

(a) Includes only respondents out of the labor force.
(b) Includes only employed respondents.

Table 3.24 Selected Measures of Labor Force Propensity, by Attitude toward Keeping House and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Selected measure	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Like it	Dislike it	Like it	Dislike it
Reaction to hypothetical job offer[(a)]				
Would or might accept	33	42	56	68
Other response	67	58	44	32
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	6,559	1,018	505	48
Reaction to hypothetical job loss[(b)]				
Take a job; look for work	59	67	82	81
Stay home; other response	41	33	18	19
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,652	855	711	86

(a) Includes only respondents out of the labor force.
(b) Includes only employed respondents.

There is little apparent relationship between attitude toward child care and response to a hypothetical job offer (Table 3.25). On the other hand, at least among employed white women, those who dislike caring for children are more likely than those who like it to say that they would remain in the labor force if they were to lose their jobs. This relationship is reversed for employed blacks, but the number of sample cases on which it is based is quite small.

The husband's attitude toward his wife's working makes a big difference in the propensity of women to be in the labor force (Table 3.26). Among white women who are currently out of the labor force, those who report favorable attitudes on the part of their husbands are almost three times as likely to say they would accept a job offer as those who perceive their husbands to have unfavorable attitudes. Among black women out of the labor force, the same association is found, but the percentage differences are not so great. In the case of employed women, those whose husbands have favorable attitudes are more likely to say they would remain in the labor force should they lose their jobs than those whose husbands have ambivalent or unfavorable attitudes. The percentage differences in this case, however, are quite small.

Table 3.25 Selected Measures of Labor Force Propensity of Married Respondents, by Attitude toward Caring for Children, and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Selected measure	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Like it	Dislike it	Like it	Dislike it
Reaction to hypothetical job offer(a)				
Would or might accept	33	35	54	62
Other response	67	65	46	38
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	7,248	273	431	29
Reaction to hypothetical job loss(b)				
Take a job; look for work	59	68	82	75
Stay home; other response	41	32	18	25
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	5,138	389	721	52

(a) Includes only respondents out of the labor force.

(b) Includes only employed respondents.

Table 3.26 Selected Measures of Labor Force Propensity of Married Respondents, by Husband's Attitude toward Working Wife and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Selected measure	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Like it	Do not care	Dislike it	Like it	Do not care	Dislike it
Reaction to hypothetical job offer(a)						
Would or might accept	70	47	25	76	63	45
Other response	30	53	75	24	37	55
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,034	1,174	5,159	149	93	282
Reaction to hypothetical job loss(b)						
Take a job; look for work	64	54	55	84	80	74
Stay home; other response	36	46	45	16	20	26
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	3,100	1,367	1,056	451	178	145

(a) Includes only respondents out of the labor force.

(b) Includes only employed respondents.

VI SUMMARY

Three dimensions of the labor force participation of the subject group of women have been analyzed in this chapter: (1) their current activity, based upon survey week status and number of weeks in the labor force during the calendar year 1966; (2) their lifetime participation, based on their total history since leaving school; and (3) their prospective activity, based on responses to hypothetical questions and a query about their plans for the future. There is a high degree of consistency among these several measures. For the most part, variables associated with one tend also to be associated with another. In particular, those factors that are related to prospective labor force participation tend almost without exception to be related to current measures.

The present study has produced evidence consistent with that of other recent research relating to the influence of marital status, presence and ages of children, level of education, and husband's earnings on the labor force participation of women. Briefly, married women living with their husbands have lower participation rates than divorced, separated, widowed, and single women, even when the presence of children is controlled. Rates are substantially lower for women with school-age children than for those with no children under 18 years old, but the difference between those with preschool children and those with school-age children is even greater. By and large, participation is inversely related to husband's earnings and is positively related to the women's level of educational attainment.

The data here also confirm the existence of pronounced differences in the extent of labor market activity between white and black women. By all measures of current, past, and prospective participation, black women have higher participation rates than white women, and the differences appear not to be completely accounted for by intercolor differences in any of the factors whose effect on participation has been examined.

Of the variables that are more or less unique to the present study, several measures of attitudes show profound relationships with the measures of labor force participation. The most powerful is the married woman's reported perception of her husband's attitude to her employment. For example, white women who regard their husbands' attitude to be favorable were in the labor force nearly 23 weeks more in 1966 than those who reported unfavorable attitudes on the part of their husbands. Moreover, whether currently in or out of the labor force, women whose husbands' attitudes are favorable to labor force activity manifest higher propensities to enter or remain in the labor market than those whose husbands have contrary views.

The woman's own views as to the appropriate role of women also show strong relationships to virtually all measures of labor force participation. Those who look favorably on the employment of women with school-age children are considerably more likely than those with contrary views to be in the labor force currently. They are also likely to have devoted larger portions of their lives since leaving school to labor market activity and to have higher propensities toward labor market activity in the future. Attitudes toward housekeeping and toward child care are also related in the expected direction to the likelihood of labor force participation, but the relationships in this case are much less pronounced.

It is impossible to tell, of course, whether these several attitudinal variables reflect independent determinants of labor force activity or whether they are themselves determined by such activity. Our guess at the moment is that both of these elements are involved in the relationships that have been observed. Longitudinal analysis of these relationships in the case of a younger cohort of women (14 to 24 years of age), which is currently under way, may shed some light on this matter.

Health appears to exercise an important effect on the labor force participation of women, although our findings on this question are somewhat ambiguous. On the basis of respondents' perceptions of their health relative to that of "other women of the same age," there is a rather pronounced relationship with labor market activity. Those who regard their health to be "excellent" or "good" have current participation rates significantly higher than those who report "fair" or "poor" health. The difference is 7 percentage points in the case of married white women and 17 points in the case of their black counterparts. Similarly, women who report good or excellent health also manifest a greater likelihood of being in the labor force in the future. Paradoxically, however, the other measure of health--whether there are conditions that limit the amount and kind of work the respondent can do--shows precisely the opposite relationship with labor force participation for white women, although not for black. More intensive examination of this variable clearly is called for.

Husband's health appears to be related to the respondent's labor force activity. In the case of white women, labor force participation is greater among those whose husbands have a health problem that limits or prevents their work activity. Inexplicably, however, the opposite relationship prevails among blacks.

CHAPTER THREE

APPENDIX TABLES

The tables presented in this appendix cross-tabulate either the survey week labor force participation rates or the mean number of weeks in the labor force in 1966 by those variables which have been analyzed and discussed in some detail by other researchers. The fact that these variables are presented in an appendix without discussion does not mean that we believe that their effect on female participation rates is unimportant. Rather it reflects our view that their importance has been amply demonstrated by previous research findings and that no useful purpose would be served by further elaboration at this early stage of the longitudinal analysis.

Table A-1 Selected Measures of Labor Force Participation(a) of Respondents with Work Experience, by Marital Status, Ages of Children Living at Home, and Color

Marital status and ages of children living at home	Total number (thousands)	(1) Participation rate since last attended school	(2) Participation rate during 1966	(3) Participation rate, survey week 1967
	WHITES			
Married	12,905	35.9	39.2	45.0
No children under 18	1,593	54.3	64.2	68.9
Children 6-17, none younger	6,249	33.4	46.7	52.8
Children under 6	5,064	32.9	22.5	27.8
Nonmarried	2,023	39.5	74.8	49.7
No children under 18	980	83.1	87.1	92.0
Children 6-17, none younger	765	46.4	69.8	74.4
Children under 6	278	36.3	44.8	50.0
Total or average	14,928	39.5	44.0	49.7
	BLACKS			
Married	1,348	44.8	56.7	62.9
No children under 18	247	57.0	66.7	72.9
Children 6-17, none younger	566	47.0	68.3	71.7
Children under 6	536	37.1	40.2	48.9
Nonmarried	686	54.3	66.7	74.8
No children under 18	194	65.6	76.0	80.9
Children 6 17, none younger	295	53.6	68.5	79.7
Children under 6	197	45.2	66.7	61.4
Total or average	2,035	48.0	60.1	66.8

(a) These rates are not directly comparable: (1) is the fraction of years since the respondent last attended school in which she worked at least six months per year; (2) is the average number of weeks in labor force during 1966 expressed as a fraction of the 52 weeks; and (3) is the survey week labor force participation rate. The purpose of this table is to show that, in general, these three measures are highly positively related. Finding a positive or negative association between an explanatory variable and any one of these three measures often makes it unnecessary to show three tables in the text.

Table A-2 Survey Week Labor Force and Employment Status and Mean Number of Weeks in Labor Force in 1966, by Marital and Family Status and Color

Marital and family status	Total number employed (thousands)	Total number unemployed (thousands)	Total number out of labor force (thousands)	Total number (thousands)	Survey week unemployment rate (percent)	Survey week labor force participation rate (percent)	Mean weeks in labor force
				WHITES			
Married	5,565	241	7,637	13,442	4.2	43	19.7
No children under 18	1,073	24	579	1,676	2.2	66	31.8
Children 6-17, none younger	3,181	123	3,235	6,539	3.7	50	23.3
Children under 6	1,311	93	3,823	5,227	6.6	27	11.3
Nonmarried	1,555	55	507	2,117	3.4	76	37.2
No children under 18	878	24	135	1,037	2.7	87	42.8
Children 6-17, none younger	548	21	215	784	3.7	72	35.4
Children under 6	129	10	157	296	7.2	47	21.9
				BLACKS			
Married	780	67	556	1,404	7.9	60	28.5
No children under 18	174	6	67	247	3.3	73	34.7
Children 6-17, none younger	371	34	182	587	8.4	69	34.3
Children under 6	235	27	308	569	10.3	46	19.7
Nonmarried	472	41	191	704	8.0	73	33.8
No children under 18	150	7	40	196	4.4	80	39.0
Children 6-17, none younger	215	20	66	301	8.5	78	34.8
Children under 6	107	14	85	206	11.5	59	27.4

Table A-3 Mean Number of Weeks in Labor Force in 1966, by Marital Status, Ages of Children Living at Home, 1967 Unemployment Rate in Local Labor Market, and Color

Ages of children living at home and 1967 unemployment rate in local labor market	Married		Nonmarried	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force
	WHITES			
No children under 18	1,676	31.8	1,037	42.8
Less than 3.1 percent	421	31.0	170	45.2
3.1 to 5.0 percent	949	32.9	741	43.2
More than 5.0 percent	305	29.3	127	37.3
Children 6-17, none younger	6,539	23.3	784	35.4
Less than 3.0 percent	1,688	24.3	148	32.8
3.1 to 5.0 percent	3,600	22.9	480	37.9
More than 5.0 percent	1,250	23.0	157	30.2
Children under 6	5,227	11.3	296	21.9
Less than 3.1 percent	1,405	13.2	74	28.6
3.1 to 5.0 percent	2,861	10.3	177	18.7
More than 5.0 percent	961	11.5	44	23.4
Total or average	13,442	19.7	2,117	37.2
Less than 3.1 percent	3,514	20.7	391	37.4
3.1 to 5.0 percent	7,410	19.3	1,398	38.3
More than 5.0 percent	2,517	19.4	327	32.1
	BLACKS			
No children under 18	247	34.7	196	39.0
Less than 3.1 percent	53	37.5	57	43.5
3.1 to 5.0 percent	155	35.1	116	39.7
More than 5.0 percent	39	29.1	24	25.3
Children 6-17, none younger	587	34.3	301	34.8
Less than 3.1 percent	139	30.2	73	36.1
3.1 to 5.0 percent	371	37.4	187	35.3
More than 5.0 percent	77	26.7	41	30.6
Children under 6	569	19.7	206	27.4
Less than 3.1 percent	135	22.2	52	36.6
3.1 to 5.0 percent	352	20.0	126	23.5
More than 5.0 percent	83	14.9	29	28.0
Total or average	1,404	28.5	704	33.8
Less than 3.1 percent	326	28.0	182	38.5
3.1 to 5.0 percent	878	30.0	429	33.0
More than 5.0 percent	199	22.3	93	28.4

Table A-4 Survey Week Labor Force Participation Rate of Married Respondents,(a) by Ages of Children Living at Home, 1966 Family Income less Respondent's Earnings, and Color

Ages of children living at home and 1966 family income less respondent's earnings	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
No children under 18	1,690	65	248	73
Less than $3,000	123	56	42	56
$3,000 - 6,999	483	66	89	82
$7,000 or more	675	69	61	63
Children 6-17, none younger	6,584	50	595	69
Less than $3,000	420	46	75	63
$3,000 - 6,999	1,449	59	225	75
$7,000 or more	3,156	47	161	62
Children under 6	5,276	27	581	46
Less than $3,000	456	31	140	51
$3,000 - 6,999	1,178	33	234	50
$7,000 or more	2,710	25	106	42
Total or average	13,549	43	1,424	61
Less than $3,000	999	40	257	55
$3,000 - 6,999	3,111	50	548	66
$7,000 or more	6,541	40	328	56

(a) Includes only respondents who are married at the time of the survey (including those not living with husbands).

Table A-5 Mean Number of Weeks in Labor Force in 1966, by Ages of Children Living at Home, Age of Respondent, Marital Status, and Color

Ages of children living at home and age of respondent	WHITES				BLACKS			
	Married		Nonmarried		Married		Nonmarried	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force
No children under 18	1,676	31.8	1,037	42.8	247	34.7	196	39.0
30-34	246	34.1	312	44.4	24	43.7	61	39.2
35-39	342	32.7	337	41.9	66	38.5	42	34.4
40-44	1,088	31.0	388	42.3	157	31.7	93	41.0
Children 6-17, none younger	6,539	23.3	784	35.4	587	34.3	301	34.8
30-34	1,296	22.6	195	39.9	146	40.6	92	34.5
35-39	2,373	22.9	244	32.0	209	36.3	122	37.4
40-44	2,871	23.9	346	35.3	232	28.5	87	31.6
Children under 6	5,227	11.3	296	21.9	569	19.7	206	27.4
30-34	2,603	11.5	153	26.5	272	18.8	94	25.3
35-39	1,778	12.2	84	17.0	202	17.6	75	29.8
40-44	845	8.9	58	16.8	96	26.9	38	28.0
Total or average	13,442	19.7	2,117	37.2	1,404	28.5	704	33.8
30-34	4,145	16.3	660	38.9	443	27.4	247	32.2
35-39	4,493	19.4	665	35.1	476	28.7	239	34.5
40-44	4,804	22.9	792	37.4	485	29.2	218	35.0

Table A-6 Average Labor Force Participation Rate since Leaving School,(a) of Ever-Married Respondents with Work Experience by Ages of Children Living at Home, Highest Year of School Completed, and Color

Ages of children living at home and average labor force participation rate since leaving school(b)	8 years or less	9-11 years	12 years	13-15 years	16 years or more	Total or average
	WHITES					
No children under 18						
Average participation rate	40	39	50	44	71	45
Total number (thousands)	443	514	457	94	98	1,607
Children under 18						
Average participation rate	34	32	36	33	37	34
Total number (thousands)	1,390	2,454	6,424	1,409	1,082	12,784
	BLACKS					
No children under 18						
Average participation rate	46	51	65	(c)	89	58
Total number (thousands)	96	88	58	14	27	284
Children under 18						
Average participation rate	46	49	67	72	72	60
Total number (thousands)	245	306	654	151	80	1,441

(a) See Table 3.13, footnote (a).

(b) Computed from midpoints of frequency distributions. This is the number of years in the labor force at least six months since respondent last attended school divided by number of years since school.

(c) Base too small to compute average.

Table A-7 Selected Measures of Labor Force Participation of Respondents with Work Experience, by Current (Last) Occupation and Color

Current (last) occupation	Total number (thousands)	Survey week participation rate	Participation rate during 1966(a)
	WHITES		
Professional, managerial	2,452	60	55
Clerical, sales	7,213	43	39
Blue-collar	2,729	54	48
Domestic service	265	57	38
Nondomestic service	1,938	53	44
Farm	331	56	54
Total or average	14,928	50	44
	BLACKS		
Professional, managerial	191	79	68
Clerical, sales	320	72	68
Blue-collar	441	66	59
Domestic service	466	64	56
Nondomestic service	522	68	62
Farm	94	39	34
Total or average	2,034	67	60

(a) See Table A-1, footnote (a).

Table A-8 Mean Number of Weeks in Labor Force in 1966 of Married Respondents, of Children Living at Home, Husband's Earnings in 1966, and Color

Ages of children living at home and husband's earnings in 1966	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in labor force
No children under 18	1,676	31.8	247	34.7
Less than $3,000	355	30.7	56	28.7
$3,000 - 6,999	539	34.1	124	38.0
$7,000 - 9,999	364	33.9	39	33.4
$10,000 or more	284	30.0	14	(a)
Children 6-17, none younger	6,539	23.3	587	34.3
Less than $3,000	1,191	25.9	135	31.2
$3,000 - 6,999	1,663	28.2	255	36.5
$7,000 - 9,999	1,795	24.4	116	35.5
$10,000 or more	1,448	14.8	17	(a)
Children under 6	5,227	11.3	569	19.7
Less than $3,000	840	14.3	192	19.9
$3,000 - 6,999	1,260	15.0	243	20.4
$7,000 - 9,999	1,608	11.2	78	21.4
$10,000 or more	1,265	6.1	21	13.4
Total or average	13,442	19.7	1,404	28.4
Less than $3,000	2,386	22.5	383	25.2
$3,000 - 6,999	3,462	24.3	621	30.5
$7,000 - 9,999	3,767	19.7	232	30.4
$10,000 or more	2,997	12.6	53	19.4

(a) Base is too small to compute mean weeks.

CHAPTER FOUR*

EMPLOYMENT PATTERNS

In this chapter we examine several aspects of the current employment experience of women 30 to 44 years of age in order to build a base from which to measure changes that will occur over the life of the research. The first section of the chapter considers occupational assignments at the time of the survey and relates these to a number of explanatory variables. The following section takes up variation in hourly rates of pay. The third section examines three dimensions of transportation from home to work: mode, time, and cost. The nature and costs of child-care arrangements are explored in the subsequent section. Finally, some of the determinants and consequences of part-time work are considered.

I OCCUPATION

Of women 30 to 44 years of age who were employed as wage and salary workers at the time of the survey, 58 percent were white-collar workers, while 22 percent were blue-collar. An additional 19 percent were in the service occupations and 1 percent were employed as farm workers. These proportions are very similar to those for the total of all employed women in the United States in 1967, regardless of age.[1] The proportion of white women in our cohort in white-collar occupations is twice as high as that of black (63 versus 30 percent). The largest intercolor difference by occupation is among clerical workers: 39 percent of the white women but only 16 percent of the black are in this category. With respect to the other major occupation groups, black women are disproportionately assigned to service occupations. Only 1 percent and 13 percent of the whites are in domestic and nondomestic service, respectively. The corresponding percentages for blacks are 17 and 23 (Table 4.1).

Age

The relationship between occupation and age provides some indication that the nature of the color difference in occupational assignment may be changing over time. Compared to those somewhat older, a smaller proportion of black women 30 to 34 years of age are domestic service workers. In

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* This chapter was written by Frederick A. Zeller.

[1] U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Report of the President, 1970 (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1970), p. 226.

Table 4.1 Major Occupation Group of Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Age and Color(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Major occupation group	30 to 34	35 to 39	40 to 44	Total or average
		WHITES		
White-collar	65	64	62	63
Professional, technical	16	18	11	15
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	2	5	5	4
Clerical	44	36	39	39
Sales	4	6	6	5
Blue-collar	19	23	22	22
Domestic service	2	1	2	1
Nondomestic service	13	12	14	13
Farm	1	1	0*	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,709	1,922	2,244	5,875
		BLACKS		
White-collar	31	30	31	30
Professional, technical	7	13	13	11
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	0*	0*	1	1
Clerical	20	14	14	16
Sales	3	2	2	2
Blue-collar	28	24	20	24
Domestic service	11	20	18	17
Nondomestic service	29	25	29	23
Farm	1	1	2	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	320	374	350	1,044

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

(a) The tabulations from which the data in this table were compiled excluded respondents who did not report rate of pay. Consequently, universe totals in this table are somewhat smaller than the corresponding figures in other tables of this report.

both color groups, those in the youngest of the three age groups are more likely to be in clerical jobs. The youngest group of black women are also more likely to be in blue-collar positions. The opposite, however, appears to be true of white women 30 to 34 years old; relatively few are in blue-collar work.

Educational Attainment

Among wage and salary workers, women in professional and technical occupations display higher educational attainment than women in other occupational groups: nearly three of five white and four of five black women in this category have completed at least four years of college (Table 4.2). On the other hand, 23 percent of the whites and 18 percent of the blacks in this category have no more than 12 years of education. The fact that such a large proportion of black women in this category are college graduates no doubt reflects segregated school patterns and the resulting predominance of black teachers within the professional group. Limited access for black women to library, health, and technical careers--many of which require less than a baccalaureate degree--may also be involved. As might be expected, the least-well-educated group in the sample is in domestic service, where median educational attainment is only about nine years. Women in farm jobs also appear to be poorly educated, but the small number of sample cases prevents a confident statement in this regard.

The category of nonfarm managers, proprietors, and officials is one of the more heterogeneous in terms of educational attainment. Three-fifths of the white women in this category have high school diplomas, 4 percent have college degrees, but 7 percent have not gone beyond the eighth grade. Clerical workers also display a fairly diverse pattern of educational attainment. Fifteen percent of the white women have 11 years of schooling or less, while 17 percent have one or more years of college. There is, of course, considerable skill variation within both these occupational groups.

With respect to overall intercolor differences, white women have a median of 12.4 years of educational attainment compared to 11.6 years for black women. It is noteworthy that this difference does not exist in the white-collar occupations, where black women tend to have somewhat more years of schooling than their white counterparts. In the blue-collar and service occupations, on the other hand, where a majority of the black women are employed, their educational attainment is below that of white women in the same occupational categories.

Class of Worker

For women 30 to 44 years of age, the proportion of white-collar workers among wage and salary employees in government jobs is appreciably higher than it is in the private sector (Table 4.3). One of the more interesting findings is the difference between blacks and whites in clerical occupations. While the proportion of white women

Table 4.2 Highest Year of School Completed by Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Major Occupation Group and Color[(a)]

(Percentage distribution)

Highest year of school completed	White-collar					Blue-collar	Domestic service	Nondomestic service	Farm	Total or average
	Professional, technical	Nonfarm managers, proprietors	Clerical	Sales	Total or average					
					WHITES					
8 years or less	1	7	2	3	2	18	46	20	48	12
9-11 years	2	23	13	32	13	42	28	36	33	20
12 years	20	60	68	56	55	39	26	40	20	48
13-15 years	20	6	14	6	14	2	0	4	0	10
16 years or more	57	4	3	3	15	0	0	1	0	10
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	863	235	2,305	315	3,718	1,266	83	766	41	5,875
Median[(b)]	16+	12.3	12.5	12.3	12.6	11.3	9.4	11.5	9.2	12.4
					BLACKS					
8 years or less	4	18	2	17	4	30	47	32	72	23
9-11 years	2	0	10	13	7	32	46	40	28	31
12 years	12	11	62	66	43	34	8	23	0	30
13-15 years	1	0	21	4	12	4	0	4	0	5
16 years or more	81	72	5	0	34	0	0	1	0	11
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	118	7	167	26	318	251	174	289	10	1,044
Median[(b)]	16+	16+	12.6	12.3	12.9	10.9	9.2	10.4	Less than 8	11.6

(a) The tabulations from which the data in this table were compiled excluded respondents who did not report rate of pay. Consequently, universe totals in this table are somewhat smaller than the corresponding figures in other tables of this report.

(b) Median computed from grouped data.

Table 4.3 Major Occupation Group of Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Class of Worker and Color (a)

(Percentage distribution)

Major occupation group	Government	Private	Total or average
	WHITES		
White-collar	83	58	63
Professional, technical	43	8	15
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	2	4	4
Clerical	37	40	39
Sales	1	6	5
Blue-collar	4	26	22
Domestic service	0	2	1
Nondomestic service	13	13	13
Farm	0	1	1
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,180	4,695	5,875
	BLACKS		
White-collar	68	16	30
Professional, technical	34	2	11
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	2	0	1
Clerical	32	10	16
Sales	0	4	2
Blue-collar	7	32	24
Domestic service	0	24	17
Nondomestic service	26	28	28
Farm	0	1	1
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	304	740	1,044

(a) The tabulations from which the data in this table were compiled excluded respondents who did not report rate of pay. Consequently, universe totals in this table are somewhat smaller than the corresponding figures in other tables of this report.

employed in this major group by governmental and nongovernmental employers is not much different (37 versus 40 percent), only 10 percent of the black wage and salary workers employed in the private sector are in clerical occupations compared to 32 percent of those employed by government. This difference probably reflects, at least in part, government policy with respect to equal employment opportunity, although a portion of the difference is attributable to the absence of domestic service work in government. This latter category employs nearly a quarter of black private wage and salary workers in this age cohort.

Marital Status[2]

White women employed in sales and nondomestic service occupations have higher-than-average proportions who are married.[3] In the case of the blacks, the same appears to be true of the very small number of sales workers, but service workers (domestic and nondomestic alike) have lower-than-average proportions of married women. These relationships, in part, reflect differences among the major occupation groups in the availability of part-time employment and, in part, are attributable to the underlying correlation between educational attainment and marital status (Table 4.4).

Health

Health may be related to occupational assignment in at least two ways. In some cases, health problems may stem from working conditions associated with the job. In other instances, some women presumably seek occupations which are compatible with their impairments. Both self-ratings of health and reported limitations reveal a mixed association with occupation. Although not shown here, within occupation-color groups for which there are sufficient sample cases for reasonably confident inferences, health limitations are most numerous among white women in sales positions and black women in domestic service jobs; 22 percent of the former and 17 percent of the latter report health conditions which limit their working. It should also be observed that women in these two occupational groups are somewhat older than average, as indicated in Table 4.1.

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[2] The employment data used in this and in the following section include the self-employed, unpaid family workers as well as wage and salary workers. In other words, it is made up of all women 30 to 44 years of age at work or with a job at the time of the survey in 1967.

[3] Unless otherwise noted, the term "married" refers to respondents who are married with husband present. "Nonmarried" refers to respondents who are never married, divorced, separated, widowed, and married, husband absent.

Table 4.4 Proportion of Employed Respondents Who Are Married, by Major Occupation Group and Color

Major occupation group	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent married	Total number (thousands)	Percent married
White-collar	4,429	77	363	69
Professional, technical	1,067	76	129	66
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	393	78	19	83
Clerical	2,548	76	183	67
Sales	421	83	32	84
Blue-collar	1,359	78	264	62
Domestic service	148	74	269	59
Nondomestic service	1,003	82	323	57
Farm	181	94	34	71
Total or average	7,120	78	1,253	62

Size of the Labor Force

While the size of the labor force in an area bears little relationship to the occupational structure of employment for white women, there is a strong association among black women (Table 4.5). The proportion of this latter group in clerical jobs is about four times higher in the largest primary sampling units (PSU's) than in the smallest (25 versus 6 percent), and the proportion in domestic service in the smallest PSU's is more than five times the proportion in the largest (28 versus 5 percent). We look forward to a thorough examination of this relationship at a later date. The statistical association between labor force size and the occupational assignment of black women may reflect regional (e.g., North-South) variation in employment opportunities. It also may be associated, at least in part, with the location of state and federal job opportunities.

Table 4.5 Major Occupation Group of Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Size of Labor Force in Local Labor Market and Color (a)

(Percentage distribution)

Major occupation group	500,000 or more	100,000-499,999	Less than 100,000	Total or average
	WHITES			
White-collar	66	65	60	63
Professional, technical, managerial	20	20	16	19
Clerical	41	40	37	39
Sales	6	5	6	5
Blue-collar	19	20	24	22
Domestic service	2	1	2	1
Nondomestic service	14	12	13	13
Farm	0	1	1	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,489	2,014	2,372	5,875
	BLACKS			
White-collar	40	36	17	30
Professional, technical, managerial	11	16	10	12
Clerical	25	17	6	16
Sales	4	3	1	2
Blue-collar	31	16	23	24
Domestic service	5	17	28	17
Nondomestic service	24	31	29	28
Farm	0	0	3	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	388	273	383	1,044

(a) The tabulations from which the data in this table were compiled excluded respondents who did not report rate of pay. Consequently, universe totals in this table are somewhat smaller than the corresponding figures in other tables of this report.

II HOURLY RATE OF PAY[4]

The reported mean hourly rate of pay of white women 30 to 44 years of age is about 21 percent higher than the rate for black. However, blacks in the professional-technical and nonfarm managerial categories earn more than their white counterparts and those in clerical occupations earn as much (Table 4.6).[5] In the remaining occupational categories containing sufficient sample cases for reliable comparisons, white women earn more, on the average, than black women. As pointed out below, a major portion of these intercolor differences is probably attributable to systematic variation both in specific three-digit occupational assignments within the one-digit major groups and in educational attainment as measured by years of school completed.

Years of School Completed

In general, years of education bear the expected positive relationship to rate of pay for both white and black women. Whites with 13 or more years of education earn, on the average, 72 percent more than those with eight years or less schooling (Table 4.6). Among blacks, this difference is even greater. Black women with 13 or more years of education have a mean wage rate which is a little more than two-and-one-half times that of black women with eight years of education or less. At least in part, however, this intercolor difference is a statistical artifact, since, as shown earlier in this chapter, a larger proportion of blacks than whites in professional-technical jobs have completed college and we suspect that a much larger proportion of black professionals are in teaching, an occupation which generally commands a higher than average salary for professional-technical women.[6]

While the number of sample cases is often insufficient for drawing confident inferences, it would appear that within most occupational categories educational attainment is positively correlated with hourly earnings. Furthermore, there is evidence that this difference is more

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[4] Information in this section is limited to employed wage and salary workers, because it is virtually impossible to ascertain to what extent the earnings of the self-employed are wages as opposed to other kinds of returns. In the case of most employed wage and salary workers who reported rates of pay in terms of a time unit other than an hour, hourly rates were computed by first converting the reported figure into a weekly rate and then dividing by the number of hours usually worked per week on current job. Accurate computations for those who reported a daily rate, however, were impossible; hence hourly wage rates for these people are treated as not ascertained.

[5] It is worth noting that in the study of men 45 to 59 years of age, white workers earned substantially more than black in *every* major occupation category. Parnes, *et al.*, *The Pre-Retirement Years*, Vol. I, pp. 53-55.

[6] See Table 4.2 and the related discussion earlier in this chapter.

Table 4.6 Mean Hourly Rate of Pay of Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Highest Year of School Completed, Major Occupation Group and Color

Major occupation group	8 years or less	9-11 years	12 years	13 years or more	Total or average
			WHITES		
White-collar	$1.88(a)	$2.05	$2.26	$2.79	$2.38
Professional, technical	1.92(a)	3.07(a)	2.71	2.97	2.91
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	2.28(a)	2.06(a)	2.47	3.41(a)	2.45
Clerical	1.74(a)	2.11	2.27	2.42	2.26
Sales	1.91(a)	1.64	1.63	2.99(a)	1.76
Blue-collar	1.78	1.99	1.94	2.02(a)	1.91
Domestic service	0.94(a)	1.06(a)	0.91(a)	--- (b)	0.96(a)
Nondomestic service	1.40	1.40	1.63	5.57(a)	1.67
Farm	1.17(a)	1.80(a)	1.13(a)	--- (b)	1.41(a)
Total or average	1.64	1.85	2.13	2.83	2.16
			BLACKS		
White-collar	2.15(a)	1.71(a)	2.20	3.20	2.63
Professional, technical	1.42(a)	1.73(a)	2.69(a)	3.55	3.34
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	1.90(a)	--- (b)	0.69(a)	4.22(a)	3.24(a)
Clerical	4.10(a)	1.77(a)	2.23	2.33	2.26
Sales	1.65(a)	1.30(a)	1.73(a)	1.90(a)	1.61
Blue-collar	1.46	1.77	1.93	1.90(a)	1.79
Domestic service	0.81	0.99	0.91(a)	--- (b)	0.89
Nondomestic service	1.95	1.41	1.49	1.78(a)	1.41
Farm	1.08(a)	0.77(a)	--- (b)	--- (b)	0.97
Total or average	1.19	1.44	1.92	3.06	1.78

(a) Mean is based on fewer than 20 sample cases.
(b) Dashes indicate empty cells.

pronounced among white-collar than blue-collar workers. White women in white-collar occupations with 13 or more years of education have mean pay rates 36 percent higher than those with 9 to 11 years of school. With regard to blue-collar workers, those with 12 years have mean pay rates only 9 percent higher than those with eight years or less schooling. Not surprisingly, years of education appear to make little difference in occupations, such as domestic service, which draw heavily on manual but not cognitive skills.

Work Experience

One would expect that in addition to educational attainment, the extent of work experience would be positively related to hourly earnings, since such experience, at least in certain occupations and career fields, leads to the acquisition of knowledge and skill. In fact, rate of pay is positively related to the proportion of years women have worked since leaving school (Table 4.7).[7]

There is a differential of 30 percent between whites who have worked less than 50 percent of the time and those who have worked 75 percent or more. The corresponding differential for the black women is even larger (34 percent). The relationship between mean rate of pay and percentage of time worked since leaving school is greater among white-collar than blue-collar or service workers, particularly among the blacks. Between white-collar workers who have worked less than 50 percent and those who have worked 75 percent or more of the time, the difference is 30 percent for the whites and 56 percent for the blacks. Drawing the same comparison among blue-collar workers, the difference is only 10 percent for the whites and 4 percent for the blacks. There is virtually no difference at all for either color group in the service occupations. Thus, the relatively high lifetime labor force participation rates of black women pay off in higher wage rates only for those in white-collar occupations. Without doubt, this is a reflection of the unskilled nature of many, if not most, of those occupations in the service and blue-collar categories held by women.

Respondent's Health

Our two measures of the health of respondents are associated with mean hourly rates of pay in the expected direction. Both blacks and whites whose work activities are not affected by their health conditions have mean rates of pay 18 percent higher than those whose work activities are limited by their health (Table 4.8). The second measure of health,

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[7] In constructing this variable, if a woman indicated that she worked at least six months in a given year, that year was considered as a year worked.

Table 4.7 Mean Hourly Rate of Pay Received by Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Average Labor Force Participation Rate since Leaving School, Major Occupation Group, and Color

Major occupation group	75-100 percent	50-74.9 percent	Less than 50 percent	Total or average
	WHITES			
White-collar	$2.64	$2.64	$2.03	$2.38
Professional, technical	2.94	3.06	2.69	2.91
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	2.97	2.20[a]	1.77[a]	2.45
Clerical	2.49	2.37	1.94	2.26
Sales	2.39[a]	1.68[a]	1.57[a]	1.76
Blue-collar	2.03	1.90	1.85	1.91
Domestic service	1.06[a]	0.82[a]	1.26[a]	0.96[a]
Nondomestic service	1.76[a]	1.49[a]	1.71	1.67
Farm	1.51[a]	3.00[a]	1.08[a]	1.41[a]
Total or average	2.46	2.16[a]	1.89	2.16
	BLACKS			
White-collar	3.05	2.28	1.96	2.63
Professional, technical	3.62	2.62[a]	2.48[a]	3.34
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	4.22[a]	--- (b)	1.25[a]	3.24[a]
Clerical	2.46	2.27	2.00	2.26
Sales	1.78[a]	1.78[a]	1.43[a]	1.61
Blue-collar	1.78	1.84	1.71	1.72
Domestic service	0.87	0.97	0.88	0.89
Nondomestic service	1.48	1.37	1.43	1.41
Farm	0.88[a]	0.93[a]	1.00[a]	0.97
Total or average	2.08	1.68	1.55	1.78

(a) Fewer than 20 sample cases.
(b) Dashes indicate empty cells.

the respondent's self-rating, may be more subjective but shows a slightly stronger overall relationship to mean rate of pay. Although not shown here, the relationship between health condition and rate of pay has also been examined within each major occupation group. While generalization is hazardous because of the small number of sample cases in many of the occupation-health categories, it nevertheless appears to be true that the observed relationship prevails within most occupation groups.

Table 4.8 Mean Hourly Rate of Pay of Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Health Characteristics and Color

Health characteristic	WHITES	BLACKS
Effect of health on work		
Does not limit work	$2.20	$1.82
Limits work	1.86	1.54
Self-rating of health		
Excellent or good	2.21	1.85
Fair or poor	1.78	1.41

Other Correlates

Marital status Although not shown here, the relationship between rate of pay and marital status has been examined. Women who have never married have the highest mean rates of pay among both blacks and whites, although among blacks the difference between the never married and the married is insignificant. This pay rate variation by marital status is not unexpected for several reasons. First of all, as pointed out elsewhere in this report, never-married women 30 to 44 years of age tend to have relatively more educational attainment than the ever married. Moreover, single women generally have spent more time in the labor force and on a specific job and, as a consequence, have acquired more occupational tenure and formal or informal occupational training. Then, too, it is certainly plausible that women who have never married operate under somewhat fewer family constraints on their labor market behavior compared to women who are married. Finally, the occupational distribution of never-married women, especially whites, is quite different (and, on the whole, better) than it is for those who are married, and this produces a portion of the overall variation in mean hourly rate of pay.

Unfortunately, because of small numbers of single women in most occupational categories, we are not able to view pay rate differences by occupation except for one group: white clerical workers. In this group, the never married have a higher mean hourly pay rate than those who are married, although the difference is smaller than for all wage and salary workers.

Labor market conditions While thus far the emphasis has been on the association of hourly earnings with characteristics of the women themselves, we also have examined several measures of the extent and nature of labor demand conditions in local labor markets: (1) the size of the labor force in the local labor market; (2) the degree of industrial diversification of employment in the local labor market; (3) the local labor market unemployment rate in 1967; and (4) an index of demand for the labor of women. Of the four, only the first manifests a pronounced relationship with wage rate among women in most major occupational groups.

Wage rate is positively related to the size of the labor force and the differential in rates is greater for blacks than for whites (Table 4.9). White women working in the largest labor markets have mean rates of pay which are 27 percent higher than those of women employed in labor markets of fewer than 100,000. Black women employed in the largest labor markets earn 69 percent more per hour than those in the smallest. Among whites, both white-collar and blue-collar workers earn about 25 percent more in the largest than in the smallest labor markets. For blacks, white-collar workers in the largest labor markets earn 35 percent more than those in the smallest. The blue-collar differential is 21 percent, although the number of sample cases representing the smallest labor markets is too small for a comfortably reliable estimate. We are inclined to believe that the heavy concentration of blacks in small southern labor markets and large northern (and, western) ones accounts for some part of the rather large hourly pay rate variation by size of local labor market. In other words, there is probably a "region effect" at work, which we intend to examine once the data tape is in hand. It is important to note that controlling for occupation and size of local labor market simultaneously reduces considerably the intercolor variation in hourly earnings.

III TRANSPORTATION BETWEEN HOME AND WORK

Among the costs of working are the time and the expense involved in getting to and from the job. This section examines several factors associated with variations in these costs. Respondents with work experience subsequent to January 1, 1966, were asked a series of questions on their travel to and from work: the means of transportation, the

Table 4.9 Mean Hourly Rate of Pay of Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Size of Labor Force in Local Labor Market, Major Occupation Group, and Color

Major occupation group	Less than 100,000	100,000-499,999	500,000 or more	Total or average
	WHITES			
White-collar	$2.12	$2.44	$2.66	$2.38
Professional, technical	2.71	3.01	3.11	2.91
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	2.11 (a)	2.25 (a)	2.80	2.45
Clerical	2.00	2.32	2.56	2.26
Sales	1.52 (a)	1.64 (a)	2.28 (a)	1.76
Blue-collar	1.75	1.93	2.19	1.91
Domestic service	0.79 (a)	0.83 (a)	1.26 (a)	0.96 (a)
Nondomestic service	1.41	1.91	1.76	1.67
Farm	1.51 (a)	1.20 (a)	--- (b)	1.41 (a)
Total or average	1.92	2.25	2.43	2.16
	BLACKS			
White-collar	2.10	2.68	2.84	2.64
Professional, technical	2.51	3.28	4.26	3.34
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	0.69 (a)	--- (b)	3.55 (a)	3.24 (a)
Clerical	1.59	2.31	2.40	2.26
Sales	1.34 (a)	1.51 (a)	1.72 (a)	1.61 (a)
Blue-collar	1.66	1.68	2.01	1.79
Domestic service	0.79	1.02	1.15 (a)	0.89
Nondomestic service	1.20	1.33	1.73	1.41
Farm	0.97 (a)	--- (b)	--- (b)	0.97 (a)
Total or average	1.31	1.82	2.22	1.78

(a) Mean is based on fewer than 20 sample cases.
(b) Dashes indicate empty cells.

amount of time required for a one-way trip, and the total cost of a round trip for those using means of travel other than their own automobiles.[8]

Means of Transportation

Most working women between the ages of 30 and 44 drive their own automobiles to work, although there is a substantial difference in this respect between white and black women (Tables 4.10 and 4.11). Among whites the proportion is two-thirds, but among blacks it is under two-fifths. Black women, on the other hand, are more likely than white women to ride to work with others (17 versus 7 percent) and are much more likely to use public transportation (24 versus 6 percent). There is very little difference between the two color groups in the proportion who walk to work. Slightly under a tenth of each report this means of travel.

Travel Time

Women using public transportation tend to spend more time travelling to work than those travelling by automobile or, for that matter, by any other means of transportation. Among white women, for instance, half of those who drive their cars to work get there in less than 15 minutes, while only 9 percent of those using public transportation get to work this quickly (Table 4.10). Among black women the corresponding percentages are 30 and 4.

There is a substantial intercolor difference in commuting time. Overall, slightly more than half of the white women spend less than 15 minutes getting to work, as compared with a fourth of the black women. In part, of course, this difference reflects the larger proportion of white than of black women who drive to work. Nevertheless, it should be observed that for every mode of travel, blacks spend more time getting to work than whites. It would appear that in general black women live at greater distances from work than their white counterparts, although this conclusion must be tentative until we are able to control simultaneously for size of community and method of travel.

The data provide some empirical support for the hypothesis that travel time is positively related to degree of urbanization, in this case measured by the size of the labor force in the local labor market. Among white women living in primary sampling units (PSU's) with 500,000

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[8] Respondents using their own automobiles were asked the cost of parking fees and tolls. They were also asked the distance to work, on the basis of which an estimate of total costs ultimately can be made. In this report, however, costs of travel to work for those driving their own automobiles include only parking fees and tolls. Since a large majority of respondents drive their own cars to work, this means that an intensive analysis of total costs of commuting is not possible with data now available to us. Most of the ensuing discussion in this section relates to travel time.

Table 4.10 Travel Time to Work (in Minutes) of Respondents Employed at Some Time since January 1, 1966, by Selected Characteristics and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Selected characteristic	Less than 15	15 to 29	30 or more	Total percent	Total number (thousands)
			WHITES		
Means of transportation					
Own auto	50	36	13	100	5,589
Ride with someone	32	38	29	100	634
Public transportation	9	26	64	100	493
Walked only	91	8	1	100	720
Other(a)	92	8	0*	100	495
Combination	32	34	33	100	447
Total or average	52	31	16	100	8,558
Size of labor force in local labor market					
500,000 or more	44	31	25	100	2,154
100,000-499,999	46	36	18	100	2,781
Less than 100,000	62	28	10	100	3,622
Total or average	52	31	16	100	8,558
			BLACKS		
Means of transportation					
Own auto	30	45	26	100	568
Ride with someone	22	49	29	100	266
Public transportation	4	19	77	100	368
Walked only	50	37	13	100	145
Other(a)	60	25	15	100	63
Combination	25	38	37	100	107
Total or average	25	36	39	100	1,536
Size of labor force in local labor market					
500,000 or more	17	30	52	100	518
100,000-499,999	24	37	38	100	422
Less than 100,000	31	40	28	100	596
Total or average	25	36	39	100	1,536

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

(a) Includes means such as motorcycle, bicycle, company bus, etc.

or more in the labor force, one-fourth have work-commuting times of 30 minutes or more, while only one-tenth of those in PSU's of less than 100,000 need that much time to get to work. More than half of the blacks (52 percent) in PSU's with 500,000 or more workers need at least 30 minutes to get to work, while only about three-tenths of those in PSU's with less than 100,000 in the labor force need that much time. A factor contributing to the overall intercolor difference in travel time is that a larger proportion of blacks (34 percent) than whites (25 percent) live in PSU's with 500,000 or more in the labor force.

Other things being equal, there should be a positive relationship between rate of pay and travel time between home and work, since higher rates of pay should be necessary to compensate for greater costs involved in getting to work. Although we are as yet unable to control for all the relevant variables, the data show a positive simple relationship between rate of pay and usual commuting time (Table 4.11). The median hourly rate of pay for those who get to work in less than 15 minutes is $1.66 for white women and $1.33 for black women. The corresponding rates for those who travel 30 minutes or more are $2.09 and $1.58 for the white and black women, respectively.

Table 4.11 Median Hourly Rate of Pay on Current (Last) Job of Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers at Some Time since January 1, 1966, by Travel Time to Work and Color

Travel time to work	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Median hourly rate of pay	Total number (thousands)	Median hourly rate of pay
Less than 15 minutes	3,640	$1.66	299	$1.33
15-29 minutes	2,393	2.01	533	1.36
30 minutes or more	1,289	2.09	476	1.58
Total or average	7,638	1.70	1,480	1.51

Daily Direct Cost of Round Trip to Work

Until we are able to estimate the total costs of travel by own automobile, our ability to analyze costs of travel to work is necessarily quite limited. Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that the intercolor difference that has been seen to exist in commuting time is also evident in costs of travel. Whether she rides in the private automobile of someone else, uses public transportation, or uses some combination of modes of travel, the average black women pays more for getting to and from work each day than the average white woman (Table 4.12). Moreover, among those who drive their own cars, the costs of parking and/or tolls are, on average, higher for black than for white women. Tabulations thus far available do not allow us to know to what extent these differences result from the greater concentration of black women in large urban areas.

IV CHILD-CARE ARRANGEMENTS

We turn now to the nature and costs of child-care arrangements. Employed women in the sample with children under 18 years of age in the household were asked: "Is it necessary for you to make any regular arrangements for the care of your children while you are working?" Those answering "yes" were then asked: "What arrangements have you made?" Answers were classified as follows: child is cared for in own home by relative; in own home by nonrelative; in relative's home; in nonrelative's home; at school or group care center (day care center, day nursery, nursery school, after-school center, settlement house, etc.). Respondents who found it necessary to make child-care arrangements were asked to indicate the cost of those arrangements. Cost figures were obtained from 97 percent of the white women and 96 percent of the black women who made regular child-care arrangements.

Presumably, the type of child-care services used by mothers depends upon several factors. On the one hand, there are "demand" variables such as the number and ages of children, knowledge of alternative arrangements, preferences for certain kinds of services (e.g., organized day care in small groups supervised by a qualified professional), and family income. On the other hand, there are variables of an opportunity or "supply" character: the presence of other adults in the home and their alternative employment opportunities; proximity to relatives and friends outside the home; the existence of formal day-care centers, the services these centers offer, and the prices that they charge.

Among the women employed at the time of the survey, 62 percent of the whites and 72 percent of the blacks had children under 18 in the household. This emphasizes the potential importance of child-care arrangements as a significant factor affecting the labor force experiences of women in this age cohort and the welfare of their children. Including all employed women with children under 18 years of age, 37 percent of the whites and 38 percent of the blacks found it necessary to make some kind of child-care arrangements. Looking only at women with children under six years of age, corresponding percentages for whites and blacks are nearly twice as large: 70 and 68 percent, respectively.

Type and Costs of Child-Care Arrangements: An Overview

There is substantial variation in the cost of child-care arrangements. Among the whites, for example, 25 percent of those who have child care get this service without cost, while 28 percent pay $4.00 or more per day (Table 4.13). There also are very noticeable differences by color. For

Table 4.12 Daily Direct Cost of Round Trip to Work of Respondents Employed at Some Time since January 1, 1966, by Means of Transportation[a] and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Means of transportation	Less than $.50	$.50 to .99	$1.00 to 1.49	$1.50 to 1.99	$2.00 or more	Total percent	Total number (thousands)
	WHITES						
Own auto	71	18	7	2	2	100	5,589
Ride with someone	60	33	6	0	1	100	634
Public transportation	49	40	5	0	6	100	493
Combination	48	19	17	3	12	100	447
Total or average	68	20	7	2	2	100	7,343
	BLACKS						
Own auto	63	19	10	6	2	100	568
Ride with someone	56	22	20	0	1	100	266
Public transportation	29	62	6	3	0*	100	368
Combination	33	36	17	11	3	100	107
Total or average	50	33	11	4	1	100	1,328

(a) Excludes respondents who walked to work or used some other means of transportation such as motorcycle, company bus, etc.

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

Table 4.13 Daily Cost of Child-Care Arrangements Used by Employed Respondents with Such Arrangements, by Type of Arrangement and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Daily cost of child-care arrangement	In home by relative	In home by nonrelative	In relative's home	School or group care center	In nonrelative's home	Total or average
	WHITES					
No cost	56	2	44	3	12	25
$ .01 to 1.99	7	8	16	20	11	11
$2.00 to 3.99	20	29	32	57	56	36
$4.00 or more	18	62	7	20	21	28
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	392	411	299	127	395	1,634
Median(a)	No cost	$4.00+	$0.73	$2.93	$2.96	$2.75
	BLACKS					
No cost	58	11	44	16	8	35
$ .01 to 1.99	21	20	29	49	39	30
$2.00 to 3.99	18	44	27	35	42	30
$4.00 or more	3	25	0	0	11	6
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	106	38	96	41	64	345
Median(a)	No cost	$2.85	$0.40	$1.37	$2.14	$0.99

(a) Computed from grouped data.

example, 64 percent of the white women, but only 36 percent of the black women, spend $2.00 or more per day for child care.

The cost of child care varies greatly by the type of arrangements which are made. The cost is lowest, on the average, when the care is provided by a relative either in the relative's or the child's home. When in the child's home, 56 percent of the white women and 58 percent of the black women pay no child-care cost at all. When care is provided in the relative's home, 44 percent of both whites and blacks receive that care without cost. On the other hand, almost four-fifths of the white women who arrange for care in nonrelatives' homes and in schools or group care centers pay $2.00 or more per day. However, even more expensive is care provided by nonrelatives in the child's home. For this type of care, the proportion of whites who pay $2.00 or more per day is 91 percent.

The average cost of child care is much lower for blacks than for whites. We are unable to determine--at least at this time--how much of the difference is attributable to differences in services (quantity and quality) rendered versus differences in prices for identical services. We are inclined to think that both factors are involved. Of course, one reason for the overall intercolor difference in costs is that a higher proportion of black women utilize the less expensive arrangements. Thirty-one percent of the blacks get child care from relatives in the child's home compared to 24 percent of the whites; and 28 percent of the black women get child care in relatives' homes compared to 18 percent of the white. This intercolor difference in type of service used probably is related, at least in part, to differences in annual earnings. Although not shown here, among whites who worked and needed care for their children, 36 percent had incomes of $4,000 or more in 1966 compared to 19 percent of the blacks. On the other hand, 51 percent of the blacks who needed child care had incomes of less than $2,000, while the corresponding percentage for whites is 38. Thus, aside from questions of preference, white women are more able to use the more expensive child-care arrangements. But there may be other reasons for the difference as well. The pattern of dependence on family members for child-care services may reflect a tighter intergenerational family structure among black women than white; or it might be associated with ghetto living where relatives live in the same dwelling or close enough to perform such services.

Number of Children under Age Six at Home

Among white women who make some arrangements for the care of their children, but less so among their black counterparts, there is a fairly strong relationship between the number of children at home under the age of six and the total cost of child-care arrangements. The proportion of white women with no children at home under six who pay nothing is almost three times as high (38 percent) as the proportion of those with two or more preschool-age children (13 percent) (Table 4.14). The proportion of those with two or more young children at home who pay $4.00 or more

Table 4.14 Daily Cost of Child-Care Arrangement Used by Employed Respondents with Such Arrangements, by Number of Children under Age Six Living at Home and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Cost of child-care arrangement	No children under six	1 child under six	2 or more children under six	Total or average
	WHITES			
No cost	38	16	13	25
$ .01 to 1.99	11	12	9	11
$2.00 to 3.99	30	43	33	36
$4.00 or more	21	29	45	28
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	733	629	272	1,634
Median(a)	$2.06	$3.01	$3.31	$2.76
	BLACKS			
No cost	43	24	47	34
$ .01 to 1.99	20	38	31	30
$2.00 to 3.99	34	33	14	30
$4.00 or more	4	6	7	6
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	119	153	74	345
Median(a)	$0.70	$1.35	$0.19	$1.05

(a) Median computed from grouped data.

per day is more than twice as large (45 percent) as the proportion of those with no children under six (21 percent). Among blacks, the total cost of child care is actually lower for those with two or more preschool children at home (78 percent pay $1.99 or less) than it is for those with no children that age (63 percent pay $1.99 or less).

Hourly Rate of Pay

As one would expect, the amount spent for child care varies positively with rate of pay on current job (Table 4.15). The proportion of women employed as wage and salary workers who pay $2.00 or more per day for child care increases as the rate of pay increases in all instances in which the cell sizes are large enough for reliable estimates.[9] For example, 83 percent of the white women earning $3.00 or more per hour pay at least $2.00 per day, compared to 54 percent of the women earning $1.50-$1.99 hourly. A comparable relationship exists between occupation and the cost of child care. Although not shown here, median daily expenditures for child care are considerably higher for white-collar than for blue-collar workers who have such arrangements. Among whites the figures are $3.19 and $2.28, respectively; among blacks they are $2.26 and $1.61.

V PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT

Women are considerably more likely than men to work less than 35 hours a week. Moreover, voluntary part-time work has grown substantially relative to full-time work in recent years,[10] and it is likely that part-time employment of women will become even more important in the future. In this section we focus on the characteristics that appear to differentiate between employed women who usually work part time and those who usually work full time. This analysis is, in a sense, a continuation of the discussion of labor force participation contained in the previous chapter. There the question was whether respondents were in or out of the labor force. Here the question is the "intensity" of the labor force participation of the employed respondents as measured by whether they generally work more or less than 35 hours a week.

Extent of Part-Time Employment

Of all women employed as wage and salary workers, 78 percent report that they usually work full time (35 hours or more per week), while 22 percent report that they usually work part time (Table 4.16). There is

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[9] The universe analyzed in this section is comprised of wage and salary workers only, since data on rate of pay were not obtained for the self-employed.

[10] Vera C. Perrella, "Women and the Labor Force," Monthly Labor Review (February 1968), p. 9.

Table 4.15 Daily Cost of Child-Care Arrangement Used by Employed Respondents(a) with Such Arrangements, by Rate of Pay on Current Job and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Daily cost of child-care arrangement	Less than $1.50	$1.50 to $1.99	$2.00 to $2.49	$2.50 to $2.99	$3.00 or more	Total or average
			WHITES			
No cost	38	29	17	19	20	26
$ .01 to 1.99	13	16	11	9	5	11
$2.00 to 3.99	46	39	33	39	25	36
$4.00 or more	3	16	38	33	49	28
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	199	430	325	254	203	1,487
Median(b)	$1.83	$2.24	$3.31	$3.11	$4.00	$2.76
			BLACKS			
No cost	38	38	7	20	41	34
$ .01 to 1.99	48	18	20	7	4	30
$2.00 to 3.99	12	38	71	60	27	30
$4.00 or more	2	6	2	13	27	6
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	138	65	50	17	27	343
Median(b)	$0.50	$1.31	$2.64	$2.76	$2.36	$1.05

(a) Includes only wage and salary workers.
(b) Computed from grouped data.

a small intercolor difference in the extent of part-time employment. Compared to 22 percent of the white women, 26 percent of the black report usually working part time. This variation by color is associated with differing occupational employment patterns (Table 4.17). Specifically, blacks are far more likely than whites to have jobs in the domestic service category, which contains a much larger-than-average proportion of part-time workers. In virtually all other occupational categories containing sufficient sample cases for reliable comparison, black women are actually less likely than white women to be part-time workers.

Table 4.16 Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Usual Hours of Work and Color
(Percentage distribution)

Full-time or part-time employment	WHITES	BLACKS	TOTAL
Full time	78	74	78
Part time	22	26	22
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	6,267	1,207	7,474

Table 4.17 Proportion of Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers Who Usually Work Less than 35 Hours per Week, by Major Occupation Group, and Color

Major occupation group	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent part time	Total number (thousands)	Percent part time
White-collar	3,977	23	347	13
Professional, technical	973	26	128	11
Managerial	249	9	7	18
Clerical	2,396	21	181	13
Sales	358	46	31	24
Blue-collar	1,308	7	263	8
Domestic service	120	59	269	68
Nondomestic service	814	32	303	16
Farm	46	43	25	46
Total or average	6,267	22	1,207	26

Reasons for Part-Time Employment

Based on hours worked during the survey week (rather than hours usually worked), the overwhelming majority of women working part time report doing so by choice (Table 4.18). Nevertheless, there is important intercolor variation. Whereas 93 percent of the white women working less than 35 hours a week list reasons that are noneconomic,[11] the corresponding proportion of black women is only 78 percent. Between occupational groups, there are several interesting differences. Compared to women in other major occupational categories for which there are adequate sample cases for reasonably confident estimates, the proportion of black women in domestic service and blue-collar jobs who usually work part time for economic reasons is quite high. The same is true of white women employed part time in blue-collar positions.

Correlates of Part-Time Employment

Marital and family status Irrespective of the presence of children, employed married women are more likely to work part time than those who are not married (Table 4.19). The only exception to this generalization occurs among nonmarried black women with children under six years of age, who are actually somewhat more likely to be working part time than their married counterparts. Presumably, the larger proportion of full-time workers among nonmarried women is attributable to their greater financial need. It is likely that the one exception to the general pattern (nonmarried blacks with children under six) is related, at least in part, to the large number of such women who hold domestic service jobs. Frequently such jobs are available only on a part-time basis.

The presence of children apparently exerts an independent influence on number of hours worked only in the case of married white women and nonmarried black. Among married white women who are employed, those with children under 18 in the home are twice as likely as others to be part-time workers. Among nonmarried blacks, those with children under six are twice as likely as those with no children to be part-time workers, although there is not much difference between the latter and those whose youngest child is over six.

Family income less respondent's earnings To some extent whether a married white woman works full time or part time appears to depend on the relative need of her family for income. Those who work part time are from families in which the median income (without the respondents' earnings) is $8,226 compared to $7,400 for those who work full time (Table 4.20). Among black women, however, the relationship is reversed;

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[11] Noneconomic reasons include "full week less than 35 hours," "prefer part-time work," "illness," and "other." Economic reasons are those associated with layoffs, production cutbacks, and inability to find full-time work.

Table 4.18 Reasons Given by Respondents Employed Less than 35 Hours in Survey Week for Working Part Time, by Major Occupation Group and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Reasons for part-time work	White-collar					Blue-collar	Domestic service	Non-domestic service	Farm	Total or average
	Professional, technical	Nonfarm managers, proprietors	Clerical	Sales	Total or average					
	WHITES									
Noneconomic reasons(a)	91	93	98	96	96	85	85	90	91	93
Economic reasons	9	7	2	4	4	15	15	10	9	7
Usually work full time	8	7	0*	4	3	10	10	3	5	4
Usually work part time	1	0	2	0	1	5	5	7	4	3
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	383	65	914	202	1,565	389	93	389	108	2,544
	BLACKS									
Noneconomic reasons(a)	96	100	98	100	98	74	70	86	48	78
Economic reasons	4	0	2	0	2	26	30	14	52	22
Usually work full time	4	0	0	0	1	14	1	8	8	5
Usually work part time	0	0	2	0	1	11	29	6	44	17
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	27	6	52	12	98	67	180	76	20	440

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

(a) See footnote 11, p. 129.

Table 4.19 Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Usual Hours of Work, Marital and Family Status, and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Full- or part-time employment	Married				Nonmarried				Total or average
	No children under 18	Children 6-17, none younger	Children under 6	Total or average	No children under 18	Children 6-17, none younger	Children under 6	Total or average	
	WHITES								
Full time	85	70	69	73	96	92	96	94	78
Part time	15	30	31	27	4	8	4	6	22
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,012	2,748	1,011	4,771	849	524	123	1,496	6,267
	BLACKS								
Full time	73	74	72	73	82	80	64	77	74
Part time	27	26	28	27	18	20	36	23	26
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	169	353	229	751	140	211	106	456	1,207

there is a somewhat greater tendency for full-time workers to come from families with higher annual incomes (exclusive of the respondents' earnings). This relationship is consistent with the notion that black women are less likely than white to be working part time because they enjoy working outside the home, rather than because their earnings are needed or because full-time jobs are not available to them.

Table 4.20 Median Family Income, Excluding Respondent's Earnings, of Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Usual Hours of Work, Marital Status, and Color[(a)]

Marital status	Full time		Part time	
	Total number (thousands)	Median family income	Total number (thousands)	Median family income
	WHITES			
Married	3,430	$7,400	1,271	$8,226
Nonmarried	1,013	Less than $2,000	63	$4,417
Total or average	4,443	$6,532	1,334	$8,122
	BLACKS			
Married	540	$5,361	199	$4,379
Nonmarried	282	Less than $2,000	93	Less than $2,000
Total or average	822	$3,886	292	$3,114

(a) Includes only respondents living with other family members.

Labor force experience Using two measures of labor force attachment--employment experience in 1966 and percentage of years since leaving school in which respondent worked at least six months--it is evident that part-time workers have displayed a weaker attachment to the labor force in the past than have full-time workers. Sixty-four percent of the whites and 62 percent of the blacks who usually work full time were employed 50 weeks or more in 1966, compared to 37 percent of the white and 50 percent of the black part-time workers (Table 4.21). Furthermore, 40 percent of the white and 48 percent of the black full-time workers worked the major portion of at least three out of four years since they left school. This compares with only 21 percent of the white and 30 percent of the black part-time workers.

Table 4.21 Selected Measures of Previous Labor Force Experience of Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Usual Hours of Work and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Selected measure	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Full time	Part time	Full time	Part time
Number of weeks worked in 1966				
None	3	11	3	7
1-13	5	11	4	6
14-26	6	14	7	12
27-39	10	11	9	12
40-49	12	16	15	13
50-51	5	9	6	5
52	59	28	56	45
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,820	1,353	884	302
Average labor force participation rate since leaving school				
75-100 percent	40	21	48	30
25-74.9 percent	42	57	39	45
0.1-24.9 percent	15	19	10	20
Did not work	2	3	3	4
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,820	1,353	884	302
Median(a)	63.4	50.9	72.4	52.9

(a) Computed from grouped data.

There appears to be some tendency for women to use part-time, rather than full-time, employment as a means of entering or reentering the labor market, although we will have to wait for additional data before making a confident statement on this matter. The proportion of white part-time workers in the sample who did not work at all in 1966 was more than three times that of white full-time workers (11 percent versus 3 percent). Among blacks, more than twice as many of the part-time workers did not work at all in 1966 (7 percent versus 3 percent).

Hourly Rate of Pay and Costs Associated with Work

As has been seen, women who work part time generally do so by choice. It seems reasonable to suppose that part-time workers, as contrasted with those who work full time, are particularly likely to have rather specific requirements relating to the location and/or work schedules of their jobs.[12] If this is so, one might hypothesize that they pay for the restrictions they impose on their availability for work by receiving lower wage rates than full-time workers. At the same time, however, one would expect both their costs of travel to work and the costs of child care to be lower than those of full-time workers. It is not possible at this juncture to conduct a very refined test of the foregoing hypotheses. Nevertheless, Table 4.22 makes it clear that there is no consistent relationship between hourly rate of pay and hours usually worked within the major occupation groups containing sufficient sample cases to permit generalization. Overall, part-time workers do indeed earn lower hourly wage rates than full-time workers, but this is not true in all occupational categories. Among white women in professional and in nondomestic service occupations, the part-time employees actually earn higher wage rates than their full-time counterparts.

Table 4.22 Mean Rate of Pay of Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers in Selected Occupational Categories at Some Time since January 1, 1966, by Usual Hours of Work and Color

Occupation	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Full time	Part time	Full time	Part time
Professional	$2.85	$3.18	$3.08	$5.45(a)
Clerical	2.34	1.95	2.25	2.38
Sales	1.88	1.65	1.56	2.25(a)
Nondomestic service	1.48	2.11	1.44	1.24
Total or average(b)	2.18	2.09	1.84	1.54

(a) Based upon fewer than 20 sample cases.
(b) Totals include nonfarm managers, blue-collar, domestic service, and farm workers not shown separately.

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[12] There are two indirect pieces of evidence to support this hypothesis. Part-time workers are much more likely than full-time workers to say that they would simply stay at home if they were to lose their current jobs. Among whites, 48 percent of part-time, but only 18 percent of full-time wage and salary workers responded in this way. Among blacks, the corresponding proportions were 14 and 6 percent. Second, among both color groups, part-time workers are more highly attached to their current jobs than are full-time workers, as measured by their willingness to take another job for higher pay. On the latter point, see Chapter 6, Table 6.21.

These relationships do not necessarily refute the hypothesis advanced above since they may be attributable to the grossness of the occupational categories. Until we are able to undertake a more detailed analysis, we are unable to state a conclusion on this matter.

The data do support the hypothesis, however, that child-care costs are lower for part-time than for full-time workers (Table 4.23). To begin with, part-time workers are less likely than full-time workers to require child-care arrangements at all. This is true among both black and white women, and irrespective of the ages of their children. Moreover, of those who do require such arrangements, part-time workers are much more likely to be able to arrange for the care of their children without cost. Even at that, however, a surprisingly high proportion of white part-time workers who require child care pay $3.00 or more per day for it.

Finally, there is also evidence to support the hypothesis that part-time workers spend less time and money getting to work than do full-time workers. For example, among the whites, 63 percent of those working part time are able to get to work in less than 15 minutes, while the same is true of only 43 percent of those who usually work full time. The difference is less pronounced among black women, but in the same direction, despite the fact that black domestic service workers often travel considerable distances. So far as costs of travel are concerned, 74 percent of white part-time workers as compared with 63 percent of those who work full time incur direct costs of less than $0.50 for the round trip to work each day. The corresponding percentages for blacks are 54 and 44 percent.

VI SUMMARY

Employed women between the ages of 30 and 44 are distributed among the major occupation groups in substantially the same proportions as the total female labor force. Some occupational categories are more likely than others to attract married women--sales and nondomestic service, for example, in the case of white women. Such relationships are attributable in part to differences among occupation groups in the extent of part-time job opportunities and in part to an underlying relation between marital status and educational attainment.

There are, of course, very substantial differences in the occupational distributions of white women and black women. Only in part are these explained by measured differences between the two color groups in educational attainment. Indeed, although black women are less than half as likely as white women to be employed in white-collar occupations (30 versus 63 percent), those who are thus employed have higher educational attainments, on the average, than their white counterparts. Another reflection of the same phenomenon is the fact that hourly rate of pay is lower for black than for white women in every educational attainment category except among those with 13 or more years of schooling. The

Table 4.23 Selected Data on Child-Care Arrangements for Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers,(a) by Usual Hours of Work, Ages of Children Living at Home, and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Child-care arrangements	Children 6-17, none younger		Children under 6		Total or average	
	Full time	Part time	Full time	Part time	Full time	Part time
	WHITES					
Whether necessary						
Yes	25	13	77	53	38	24
No	75	87	23	47	62	76
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	2,373	861	804	307	3,177	1,168
Daily cost(b)						
No cost	34	47	12	29	23	36
$ .01 - 1.99	11	10	11	8	11	9
$2.00 - 2.99	19	8	23	10	21	9
$3.00 or more	35	35	54	54	45	46
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	580	111	618	163	1,198	274
	BLACKS					
Whether necessary						
Yes	23	16	70	64	40	37
No	77	84	30	36	60	63
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	422	132	231	101	653	234
Daily cost(b)						
No cost	38	59	22	50	28	52
$ .01 - 1.99	17	35	36	38	28	36
$2.00 - 2.99	23	6	21	8	22	7
$3.00 or more	21	0	21	5	22	4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	97	21	161	64	258	85

(a) Includes only those women who have children under 18 living at home.
(b) Refers only to those who find it necessary to make child-care arrangements.

higher rate for the blacks in the latter category is attributable to the fact that relatively more of them than of whites have actually completed college. Still another indication that intercolor differences in occupational distribution are at least in part attributable to discrimination is that the proportion of blacks employed as clerical workers is disproportionately low in the private sector of the economy, but not in the governmental sector, where there has been considerable effort to reduce or eliminate discriminatory practices.

The hourly rate of pay of employed women obviously varies substantially according to occupation. Even on the basis of the very broad major occupation groups, the range, for example, is from less than $1.00 per hour for domestic servants to almost $3.00 per hour for white professional-technical workers and a somewhat higher figure for black women in the same category. Controlling for major occupation category, rate of pay tends to vary directly with educational attainment (especially for white-collar workers) and with the percentage of time the women have worked since leaving school. It is also higher for never-married than for ever-married women, probably because of the higher educational attainment and the more stable labor force attachment of the former. Finally, consistent with the findings of other studies, rate of pay is also positively related to the size of the community. Whether hourly earnings are lower, on average, in part-time than in full-time jobs is still an open question on the basis of the data reviewed in this chapter. Overall they are, but there is variation in this respect from one major occupation group to another.

In any rational calculation that a woman makes of the economic desirability of her working, certain costs must be offset against potential earnings. Among these are the costs of arranging for the necessary care of children and both the time and the expenditures involved in the journey to work. Both of these elements have been investigated.

With respect to child care, the costs, of course, vary according to the type of arrangements made, the number of young children in the home, and whether the mother works full or part time. In addition, however, they also vary directly with hourly rate of pay. For example, among employed white women who find it necessary to arrange for the care of their children, daily costs range from a median of $1.83 for those who earn less than $1.00 per hour to $4.00 for those whose hourly earnings are $3.00 or more. However, irrespective of wage rate and, for that matter, any of the other variables used as controls in the analysis, the cost of child care tends to be higher for whites than for blacks. To a considerable extent this difference appears to be cultural in nature: blacks are more likely to obtain child-care services from relatives, which is less expensive compared to other alternatives. This probably is associated with differences between black and white women in the character of social life. Blacks are apparently more able and willing than whites to depend upon primary relationships for assistance in meeting the requirements of labor force participation.

The time required to travel to work also varies directly with variations in rate of pay. Not surprisingly, it likewise varies with the size of the local labor market area and with the means of travel used, being greater for those who use public transportation than for those who use automobiles. Black women spend more time getting to work than white women, and appear to incur greater costs also, even when means of travel is controlled. Part of the reason is that black women are more likely than white women to live in the largest communities, where travel time and costs tend to be higher. Whether it is also true that black women tend to travel farther to work than white women when size of community is controlled, we cannot at this point say. It is clear, however, that black women employed as domestic servants frequently travel long distances to their jobs.

CHAPTER FIVE*

OCCUPATIONAL AND GEOGRAPHIC MOBILITY

Most of the dynamics on the supply side of the labor market can be subsumed under the general heading of labor mobility.[1] In conventional economic theory, labor mobility refers to the propensity of persons to enter or leave the labor force, or to change jobs in response to the perception of more attractive alternatives. The theory assumes that workers are mobile in this sense, that is, that they are responsive to differentials in "net economic advantage," especially wage differentials.[2] Since wage or earnings differentials signify the relative importance of different jobs as measured by the market, when individuals move in the direction of higher paying jobs they are often moving from work situations where they are contributing relatively less to the social product to those in which they are contributing relatively more.[3] In other words, mobility is the process through which a competitive labor market achieves an optimum allocation of existing human resources at the same time that it permits the individual to maximize his own well-being.

The term "mobility" is also frequently used to refer to the actual movement of workers rather than to their propensity to move. Most empirical data on mobility are in terms of actual job movement, and researchers frequently have inferred a propensity to move from the fact of job movement, but this involves some obvious dangers. For one thing, actual shifts into or out of the labor force or from one job to another may be involuntary as well as voluntary, and propensity has no relevance to the former. Moreover, propensities to move may exist without any resulting movement if alternative job opportunities do not exist.

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* This chapter was written by John R. Shea.

[1] Change in the number of hours per week an individual is willing to work is another dimension of labor supply.

[2] Especially in the case of women, it is becoming conventional to talk of "nonmarket earnings rates" in referring to the imputed value of nonmarket goods that individuals are able to produce at home over some specified time period; see Bowen and Finegan, The Economics of Labor Force Participation, p. 18.

[3] By convention, the value of services rendered in the home escapes formal measurement, although conceptually it is a part of the social product. When wages diverge from marginal social product--as may be the case where "externalities" are involved--it may be possible to use "shadow prices" in place of actual wage rates in calculating social product. See Roland N. McKean, "The Use of Shadow Prices," Problems in Public Expenditure Analysis, Samuel B. Chase, Jr., ed. (Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institute, 1968), pp. 33-65.

Whether labor mobility is used in the sense of propensity to move or in the sense of actual movement, it embraces a number of different types of employment change.[4] Interfirm mobility refers simply to a change of employers. Occupational mobility relates to change of occupation, and industrial mobility to change of industry. Geographic mobility of labor, conceptually, refers to a change of job that necessitates a change of residence: a move, in other words, from one local labor market area to another. These types of moves are clearly not mutually exclusive. A given job change may involve all four, as, for instance, when a waitress in a restaurant in Atlanta takes a job as an assembler in an electronics plant in San Jose. It should be apparent that mobility is a concept sufficiently broad to embrace nearly all of the processes whereby the supply of labor can accommodate itself to changes in the level and composition of demand for labor.

What has been said thus far testifies to the importance of mobility in understanding the process of labor allocation. There are other contexts, however, in which mobility measures are important. For one thing, they are a means of summarizing the work histories of individuals. Persons with strong and stable attachments to the labor force, to particular employers, occupations, or geographic areas can be differentiated from those who have made frequent moves. Individuals who have moved up the occupational hierarchy during their working lives can be differentiated from those who have remained at substantially the same level or have moved downward. Related to this point is the concern of many organizations and individuals for the "underutilization" of womanpower.[5] Is underemployment of women workers a significant problem? Is it related to a lack of close attachment to the labor force or to geographic moves initiated by other family members? Do restrictions on the kinds of jobs traditionally open to women inhibit investment in specialized professional or vocational skills? It is to questions such as these that our longitudinal research is directed. Indeed, we hope to uncover many of the environmental and personal "causes" of mobility as well as their consequences for the well-being of the individual and her family. We also will be interested in comparing the aspirations and unfolding labor market experiences of another sample of younger women (14 to 24 years of age) with the experiences of the adult women who are the subject of this report.

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[4] Labor force mobility, i.e., movement into and out of the labor force, has been treated in the preceding chapter. For a fuller treatment of the concept and types of mobility, see Herbert S. Parnes, "Labor Force: Markets and Mobility," International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences (New York: The Macmillan Company and The Free Press, 1968), Vol. VIII, pp. 481-86.

[5] U. S. Department of Labor, Underutilization of Women Workers (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1967).

The purpose of the present chapter is to set a backdrop for that analysis by exploring some of the mobility characteristics of the women on the basis of information we have already collected on their previous work experience. First, we examine career beginnings and early environmental factors, such as educational attainment and family background, which are related to the jobs women take upon leaving school. Second, we focus attention on occupational change during their careers by comparing the type of work they currently do (or did recently) with that of their first regular jobs.[6] Next, we consider career changes in occupational status and correlates of upward and downward occupational mobility. Finally, we examine the extent of geographic movement, comparing the locations of first and current jobs.

I CAREER BEGINNINGS

The oldest women in our sample with little formal education undoubtedly began to participate regularly in economic activities outside the home during the depressed 1930's. High school and college graduates among our oldest women entered the labor force in large numbers during World War II. At the opposite extreme, the younger members of our sample were in high school during the early 1950's. Generally speaking, the youngest would have graduated from college just before the end of that decade. In this section we analyze the factors that appear to be related to the earliest jobs held by the respondents. While we recognize that career beginnings are certainly influenced by a host of variables, including family background, access to education, and the pattern of labor demand, we limit the discussion in this section to a few of the more important factors on the supply side of labor markets.[7] We further restrict the analysis to ever-married women who worked between school and first marriage, since there are inadequate sample cases among the never married to permit a comparable analysis using tabular techniques.

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[6] Except when otherwise indicated, the term "first job" refers to the longest job held between school and (first) marriage.

[7] Exceptions to this are inferences drawn on the basis of the secular change in the composition of the female labor force since 1940.

Educational Attainment and Age

Looking first at the apparent influence of demand and supply conditions in the past, it is clear that blue-collar and farm work have been of declining importance as first jobs for women in our cohort (Table 5.1). For example, whereas one-fourth of the white women 40 to 44 took blue-collar jobs upon leaving school, only one-seventh of the 30 to 34 year olds did so. Compared to the youngest group of black women, twice as many of the oldest began in farm occupations (12 percent versus 6 percent). Among both whites and blacks, clerical, sales, and nondomestic service positions have absorbed increasing proportions of the women as time has passed.

More substantial than variation by age of respondent are the differences between blacks and whites. The following intercolor differences are salient. Approximately one-quarter of the black women completed less than nine years of formal schooling, and nearly one-third of such women obtained farm jobs initially. Only 7 percent of the whites with so little education moved into the same occupational category. Over two-fifths of the white women with less than a twelfth grade education took first jobs in the blue-collar category, and approximately 30 percent began in clerical and sales positions. Fewer than 20 percent of comparable blacks entered blue-collar work, while only 3 percent obtained clerical or sales jobs.

In the case of women whose education ended with a high school diploma--over half of ever-married whites and nearly a third of the blacks--the most striking intercolor difference is the proportion who entered clerical and sales work. Nearly three-quarters of the white women, but only one-third of the black, began in that category. On the other hand, relative to white women, a disproportionately large number of black women entered blue-collar and service positions. A similar pattern prevails among women with some college, with whites being far more likely than blacks to have entered the clerical and sales fields. In contrast, however, among women with 16 years or more of formal schooling, comparable proportions of those in the two color groups entered professional-technical and clerical and sales categories.

There undoubtedly are numerous forces underlying these intercolor differences in career beginnings, and their interactions will be studied in a multivariate framework sometime in the future. It is probable that differences in the quality of schooling, the breadth of education and training opportunities, psychological support in the home, local labor demands, and racial discrimination in employment are all involved.

Table 5.1 Occupation of Longest Job between School and First Marriage, by Highest Year of School Completed, Age, and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Occupation of first job	Less than 9 years	9-11 years	12 years	13-15 years	16 years or more	Total or average			
						30-34	35-39	40-44	Total or average
					WHITES				
Professional and managerial	1	2	7	22	80	12	13	12	12
Clerical and sales	12	37	73	67	19	62	57	51	56
Blue-collar	48	40	13	6	0	14	19	25	20
Domestic service	14	2	1	0*	1	2	2	4	2
Nondomestic service	18	19	5	4	1	9	8	8	8
Farm	7	1	0*	0	0	1	1	1	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,098	1,938	6,234	1,191	780	3,389	3,760	4,103	11,252
					BLACKS				
Professional and managerial	0	2	6	22	81	8	13	8	9
Clerical and sales	1	4	33	38	16	21	15	10	15
Blue-collar	15	21	27	14	0	16	20	22	20
Domestic service	35	27	11	9	0	21	16	25	21
Nondomestic service	20	40	22	17	3	28	24	23	25
Farm	30	6	1	0	0	6	11	12	10
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	327	366	379	77	78	383	414	430	1,227

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

Type of Education and Training

Typing and shorthand It is clear that black women 30 to 44 years of age are much less likely than their white counterparts to have taken typing and especially shorthand while in high school (Table 5.2). Moreover, black women without such training have, in effect, been excluded in large numbers from white-collar work. Only 14 percent of white respondents with 12 years of schooling had no typing or shorthand while in school. On the other hand, the same is true of nearly half (46 percent) of the black graduates. This difference, it is to be noted, is exclusively attributable to the much larger proportion of whites than of blacks who had both typing and shorthand (56 versus 19 percent). Blacks are actually slightly more likely than whites to have had typing alone.

Lack of vocational skill development would seem to be only part of the problem of the blacks, however, since even those black women who graduated from high school with typing and shorthand were somewhat less likely to obtain white-collar work than white graduates without such training. Of course, past patterns of racial discrimination and geographic location are no doubt important causal forces which help to explain these and similar differences. It should be observed, however, that white high school graduates with typing only or with neither typing nor shorthand are only slightly less likely (roughly 10 to 15 percentage points) than those with course work in both subjects to have entered white-collar positions. On the other hand, the comparable differential among the black women is 30 to 40 percentage points. Indeed, in terms of access to professional-technical and clerical or sales posts, the typical black woman with typing only was no better off than a black with no typing or shorthand. The fact that training in typing and shorthand has not conferred the same advantages on blacks as on whites does not seem to be attributable to differences in the duration of such training since there were virtually no differences between blacks and whites as to whether the respondent had less than a year or more than a year of each of the two subjects.

Vocational preparation Just prior to the query about typing and shorthand, women with three or four years of high school (but no college) were asked: "Did you take a vocational or commercial curriculum in high school?" Nearly three in five white women and two in five black women responded affirmatively (Table 5.3). The nature of such programs differed considerably between the two color groups. Specifically, blacks are more likely than whites to have taken some form of non-office oriented vocational training, such as home economics or distributive education.

Nearly half (48 percent) of the blacks who were enrolled in such programs took first jobs in the nondomestic services category. It is also worth noting that black women who took a bookkeeping, business law, and related commercial program are more likely than those who specialized in typing and shorthand to have entered the clerical and

Table 5.2 Occupation of Longest Job between School and First Marriage, by Highest Year of School Completed, Whether Took Typing and/or Shorthand in High School, and Color(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Occupation of first job	9-11 years				12 years				13-15 years			
	No typing or shorthand	Typing only	Typing and shorthand	Total or average	No typing or shorthand	Typing only	Typing and shorthand	Total or average	No typing or shorthand	Typing only	Typing and shorthand	Total or average
							WHITES					
Professional, managerial	1	0	5	2	9	10	5	7	26	24	18	22
Clerical and sales	28	42	55	37	63	66	80	73	62	67	72	67
Blue-collar	48	32	29	40	18	15	11	13	8	8	4	6
Domestic service	1	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	0*	0*	0	0*
Nondomestic service	22	22	9	19	8	7	3	5	4	2	6	4
Farm	0*	2	0	1	0	1	0	0*	0	0	0	0
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,065	483	385	1,938	846	1,900	3,451	6,234	304	418	446	1,191
Horizontal percentage	55	25	20	100	14	30	56	100	26	36	38	100
							BLACKS					
Professional, managerial	3	0	0	2	10	1	7	6	28	27	0	22
Clerical and sales	2	13	6	4	27	28	55	33	25	32	83	38
Blue-collar	22	22	11	21	28	34	13	27	11	30	0	14
Domestic service	29	19	10	27	10	12	10	11	11	5	8	9
Nondomestic service	36	45	73	40	22	24	15	22	26	5	9	17
Farm	8	2	0	6	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	293	50	22	366	174	131	72	379	42	20	15	77
Horizontal percentage	80	14	6	100	46	35	19	100	55	26	19	100

(a) Includes only respondents who attended high school and those who did not graduate from college.

(b) May include a few respondents (less than 1 percent) who have had shorthand but no typing.

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

Table 5.3 Occupation of Longest Job between School and First Marriage, by Whether Took Vocational or Commercial Curriculum in High School and Color(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Occupation of first job	Commercial or vocational training					No commercial or vocational	Total or average
	Commercial and vocational	Commercial			Vocational(b)		
		Bookkeeping, business law, etc.	Typing or shorthand	Total or average			
	WHITES						
Professional, managerial	5	5	3	4	13	8	6
Clerical, sales	76	76	79	78	57	62	70
Blue-collar	14	13	12	13	21	19	16
Domestic service	1	2	1	1	0	2	2
Nondomestic service	4	3	4	4	9	10	7
Farm	0*	0*	0	0*	0	0*	0*
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,141	1,698	1,858	3,556	410	2,833	7,002
Horizontal percentage	59	52	27	25	6	41	100
	BLACKS						
Professional, managerial	3	0	9	4	1	5	4
Clerical, sales	30	49	38	43	14	23	26
Blue-collar	23	22	16	19	27	26	25
Domestic service	10	10	16	13	8	18	15
Nondomestic service	33	19	21	20	48	26	29
Farm	1	0	0	0	1	2	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	205	57	52	109	91	325	531
Horizontal percentage	39	21	10	11	17	61	100

(a) Excludes respondents with less than three years of high school and those who had four or more years of college.

(b) Includes food preparation, clothing preparation, commercial art, distributive education, and all other vocational programs.

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

sales category. Of course, some of these women had typing or shorthand in addition to their other training. Nevertheless, the general pattern of exclusion of most black women from secretarial and related jobs may reflect differences in verbal fluency, unequal access to positions attributable to racial discrimination, and other factors.

Family Background

There are a number of theoretical reasons for expecting strong relationships between family background factors and career beginnings. For one thing, the amount of education an individual receives is strongly related to the socioeconomic status of his family of origin. But in addition, the level, type, and overall quality of education are not independent of where an individual attends school. Small rural schools, for example, frequently are unable to provide a wide range of curricular offerings. City schools in poor neighborhoods are often inferior to suburban schools with larger tax bases. As a result, it is not always easy to interpret relationships between family background variables and career beginnings. Even when one controls for highest year of school completed, the simple association between the two variables in part reflects the effects of type and quality of schooling as well as other variables that are correlated with family background, such as intelligence.

Father's occupation For the foregoing reasons, it is not surprising that the socioeconomic position of the respondent's family is related to her career beginnings (Table 5.4). First of all, father's occupation is definitely associated with the education of his daughter.[8] Among women in both color groups, the higher the woman's educational attainment, the lower the proportion with fathers (or other household heads) who were service or farm workers, or who did not work.

Second, while the number of sample cases in several instances is inadequate for confident inferences to be drawn, it may be observed that factors associated with father's socioeconomic position seem to have had an independent influence on first jobs even when the respondent's level of education is taken into account. Among white women with 11 or fewer years of schooling, those whose fathers were white-collar workers were much more likely than others to have begun in clerical and sales jobs.[9] Similarly, less-educated women in both color groups with fathers who were service workers more frequently took entry jobs in the nondomestic

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[8] If the respondent was living in a household at age 15 but not with her father, the occupation is that of the household head.

[9] It deserves repeating that "father's occupation" as used in this simple tabular presentation is a proxy for many variables, such as employer connections, home influence, financial support, role models, and access to educational opportunities.

Table 5.4 Occupation of Longest Job between School and First Marriage, by Highest Year of School Completed, Occupation of Head of Household When Respondent Was Age 15, and Color [(a)]

(Percentage distribution)

Highest year of school completed by respondent and occupation of head of household of family of origin	Professional, managerial	Clerical, sales	Blue-collar	Domestic service	Nondomestic service	Farm	Total percent	Total number (thousands)	Vertical percentage
					WHITES				
11 years or less	2	28	43	6	18	3	100	2,927	100
White-collar	3	45	39	0	12	1	100	355	12
Blue-collar	1	30	44	3	20	1	100	1,481	52
Service	5	27	37	2	29	0	100	186	6
Farm	1	13	42	16	17	11	100	604	21
Did not work	0*	20	49	12	16	2	100	235	8
12 years	7	73	14	1	5	0*	100	6,183	100
White-collar	10	78	6	1	6	0	100	1,530	25
Blue-collar	5	74	16	1	4	0	100	2,900	48
Service	8	73	11	4	3	0	100	308	5
Farm	8	64	18	2	7	1	100	1,042	17
Did not work	4	73	9	4	10	0	100	246	4
13 years or more	45	48	4	0*	3	0	100	1,943	100
White-collar	49	48	1	1	1	0	100	969	50
Blue-collar	39	50	7	0	4	0	100	537	28
Service	24	64	0	0	12	0	100	75	4
Farm	52	42	6	0	0	0	100	282	15
Did not work	37	52	11	0	0	0	100	65	3
					BLACKS				
11 years or less	1	2	18	30	31	18	100	670	100
White-collar	17	0	22	17	35	9	100	23	4
Blue-collar	2	4	19	30	42	4	100	194	30
Service	0	4	20	29	41	6	100	108	17
Farm	0	1	15	32	15	37	100	267	41
Did not work	0	2	17	26	53	2	100	58	9
12 years or more	20	32	21	9	18	1	100	524	100
White-collar	43	39	6	2	11	0	100	56	12
Blue-collar	15	34	23	8	20	0	100	258	53
Service	1	31	38	12	18	0	100	68	14
Farm	44	23	7	16	7	2	100	86	18
Did not work	6	12	29	12	41	0	100	18	4

(a) Excludes respondents who did not live in households at age 15.

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

service category. A similar pattern holds for nongraduates with farm backgrounds, where a disproportionate number of whites and blacks took first jobs in the farm and domestic service fields. Another interesting pattern is that irrespective of the woman's level of education, having a father in the farm category is not conducive to entering clerical and sales positions. On the other hand, a strikingly large proportion of both black and white women from farm backgrounds who obtained some post-secondary education began their careers as professional, technical, or managerial workers (over half of the whites with 13 or more years of school and 44 percent of the blacks with 12 or more years). Among those whose fathers were white-collar workers, white women who went beyond high school and black women with 12 or more years of school also obtained a disproportionate number of professional and managerial jobs. Indeed, reasonably well educated black women from blue-collar and service backgrounds seem to have had the greatest difficulty in finding employment appropriate to their level of education. Of course, we intend to examine these somewhat puzzling associations in a multivariate framework in order to identify the probable pattern of causation underlying the relationships.

Other family background variables We have examined the relationship between first occupation and a number of other family background variables, controlling for the respondent's level of educational attainment. Among ever-married women 30 to 44, the occupation of a respondent's mother when the interviewee was 15 years old bears the expected relationship to first job. Women with mothers in white-collar occupations, for example, are more likely than other women to have begun their own work careers in white-collar jobs. In general, there is the same pattern of "occupational inheritance" evident in the data relating mother's and father's occupation to those of their daughters. At the same time, however, over two-thirds (68 percent) of the white women report that their mothers did not work outside the home when the respondents were age 15. The same response was given by less than half (47 percent) of the black women.

One noteworthy association between mothers' occupation and that of the respondents occurs among black women. While 63 percent of such respondents with 13 or more years of education report that their mothers did not work, the same is true of only 40 and 48 percent of those with less than 12 years and 12 years of school, respectively. In other words, black women with working mothers tended to obtain less education than those whose mothers did not work. In contrast, there were no such differences among the whites.

Although not shown here, our data also suggest that, controlling for highest year of school completed, women who lived with both parents at age 15 are slightly more likely to have begun their work careers in white-collar rather than blue-collar, service, or farm jobs. The same is true of black women with 12 years or more of schooling. It perhaps should be noted that nearly half (46 percent) of the black women in our sample, but only one-fifth of white women did not live with both parents at age 15. As might be expected, being raised in an intact family is positively related to educational attainment. Only 39 percent of the black and 68 percent of the white women who obtained eight years or less of schooling lived with both parents.

Again controlling by highest year of school completed, the relationship between area of residence at age 15 and occupation of first job has been examined. Among women in both color groups, living in a rural area during adolescence is negatively associated with educational attainment and positively related to taking a farm or domestic service job initially. On the other hand, white and black women who lived in cities of 25,000 to 100,000 population, suburbs, or in cities with over 100,000 population are more likely to have taken entry jobs in the clerical and sales categories, regardless of educational attainment. We shall be interested in eventually determining the way in which early formative influences, including education, training, and location have interacted in determining occupational beginnings.

II OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY: FIRST TO CURRENT JOB

Net Occupational Shifts

Within our sample there are sufficient sample cases for a relatively thorough tabular analysis of lifetime occupational and geographic mobility only in the case of ever-married women with children.[10] Nevertheless, at least the overall pattern of mobility can be described for three of our four marital and family status categories (Table 5.5).

As might be expected, there is some relationship between marital and family status and occupational movement over time. Even more striking, however, is the association between marital status and childbearing, on the one hand, and occupation upon first entering the work force, on the other. Ever-married and never-married women without children, although small in number, are much more likely than the ever married with children to have begun their careers in white-collar occupations. Nearly a quarter of never-married white women 30 to 44 years of age began in professional and technical occupations compared to just over 1 in 10 of the ever married with children. Thus, it appears that marriage and childbearing, as might be expected, interfere with advanced education and consequent access to white-collar, especially professional and technical, positions. Alternatively, some women with a high commitment to work may be inclined not to marry, to postpone marriage, or not to

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[10] It bears repeating that unless otherwise indicated ever-married women "with children" are those who have had responsibility for one or more children at some time, now or in the past. Lifetime marital and childbearing experiences rather than current marital status (i.e., status at time of survey) should be more closely related to career mobility patterns.

Table 5.5 Major Occupation Group of First and Current (Last) Jobs, by Marital and Family Status and Color[a]

(Percentage distribution)

Major occupation group	Ever married, ever had children			Ever married, never had children			Never married, never had children [b]		
	First job	Current job	Percentage point gain or loss	First job	Current job	Percentage point gain or loss	First job	Current job	Percentage point gain or loss
	WHITES								
White-collar	66	62	-4.0	74	75	+1.5	75	78	+3.1
Professional, technical	11	12	+0.6	14	14	-0.1	24	31	+6.8
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	2	6	+4.2	2	6	+3.9	3	6	+2.8
Clerical	46	36	-10.0	54	51	-2.7	38	38	+0.2
Sales	8	9	+1.2	3	4	+0.4	10	3	-6.7
Blue-collar	22	19	-3.3	20	18	-2.1	12	13	+0.4
Domestic service	2	2	0.0	2	1	-0.7	6	2	-3.8
Nondomestic service	8	15	+6.6	5	6	+1.3	6	7	+0.4
Farm	1	2	+0.8	0	0	0.0	1	1	0.0
Total percent	100	100		100	100		100	100	
Total number (thousands)	5,279	5,279		633	633		653	653	
	BLACKS								
White-collar	23	26	+2.4	42	41	-1.4	39	45	+5.8
Professional, technical	8	7	-1.7	22	16	-5.8	15	16	+1.8
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	0*	2	+1.4	0	4	+4.3	0	0	0.0
Clerical	12	15	+2.7	18	18	+0.3	17	25	+7.8
Sales	2	2	0.0	3	2	-0.2	7	4	-3.8
Blue-collar	20	22	+2.7	10	11	-0.2	12	12	+0.1
Domestic service	22	24	+1.7	20	32	+12.2	28	8	-19.2
Nondomestic service	24	23	-1.4	19	15	-3.8	16	30	+14.9
Farm	11	6	-5.3	8	1	-6.6	6	5	-1.7
Total percent	100	100		100	100		100	100	
Total number (thousands)	797	797		95	95		61	61	

(a) Includes only respondents who have worked at some time since January 1, 1966.

(b) Restricted to those who held a job for at least six months after leaving full-time school; first such job is tabulated as "first job."

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

have children, thus increasing their chances of securing advanced education and access to better jobs. In any case, it is noteworthy that the never-married group is far from homogeneous; this is reflected in the higher-than-average proportion who took domestic service jobs upon entry into the labor force.

With respect to lifetime occupational mobility, there are some rather important differences by marital and family status. Specifically, among white women, a rather large proportion of those who married and had children moved out of clerical positions, not to be replaced by similar women shifting into such positions. The same is true of a smaller proportion of ever-married white women without children. Among the never married, on the other hand, there was no such net movement away from clerical occupations. Moreover, among the never-married there was a fairly substantial net movement into professional work, a phenomenon that did not occur among either of the ever-married groups. Among white women generally, net occupational mobility has been in the direction of nonfarm managers and proprietors and the nondomestic service category, with reductions generally occurring among those in blue-collar and domestic service positions.

The pattern of lifetime mobility among the black women has been somewhat different, with net shifts away from professional-technical, farm, and sales work, but toward managerial and clerical positions. There has been no consistent movement away from or toward other categories. It would appear, however, that never-married black women without children are somewhat more likely than other black women to have moved up occupationally over time, although the number of sample cases on which this observation is based is quite small.

Career changes in occupational affiliation may be expected to reflect two fundamental factors: (1) the changing occupational structure of the economy over time; and (2) occupational progression over the course of the life cycle. The substantial growth of total employment in professional, technical, and clerical occupations that has occurred in recent years is clearly not reflected in the comparison of the first and current jobs of the group of women under consideration. On the other hand, the movement away from farm work and in the direction of nondomestic service jobs is consistent with secular change in labor demand. In other words, it would appear, particularly among the ever-married white women in our sample, that there has been a fair amount of slippage in occupational status from first to current jobs.[11]

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[11] Valerie Kincade Oppenheimer, "The Sex-Labeling of Jobs," Industrial Relations (May 1968), pp. 219-34, offers a number of plausible explanations of the atypical pattern evident in occupational data on women.

Gross Occupational Shifts

Among women with recent employment experience, the net change in occupational distribution between first and current jobs naturally understates considerably the number of individuals who have moved from one category to another between the beginning of their work careers and the present. Computations based on data in Table 5.5 indicate that the net change in the occupational distribution of ever-married women of each color group who have had children could have been produced by moves of about 700 thousand (or 13 percent) of the white women and 75 thousand (or 9 percent) of the black from one occupational group to another.[12] Actually, three-and-a-half times as many white women (2.5 million) and over five times as many black (400 thousand) are in different occupational categories from those in which they began their careers (computed from Table 5.6).[13]

Overall, 51 percent of ever-married white women with children are in the same occupational group in which they served in their longest job between school and (first) marriage (Table 5.6). This proportion varies widely, of course, depending upon the occupation of the earlier job. Three-fourths of those who began as professional or technical workers, three-fifths of those initially in the clerical group, and nearly half of those who began as blue-collar workers are in the same category. At the other extreme, one-fifth or less of white women who started as domestic service or sales workers, and less than a third of farm workers, have remained in the same broad occupation groups.

While there are examples of virtually all possible interoccupation group changes among white women, some are much more likely than others. To take one of the more extreme examples, white women who started as professional or technical workers have moved into every occupation category except domestic service. However, over half of the movers from the professional category have gone into clerical positions. Only 6 percent of the total original group have moved out of white-collar employment. It is worth noting that the nondomestic service category

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[12] Although the occupational categories vary somewhat in the two studies, the minimum necessary number of moves among men 45 to 59 amounted to 40 percent of all whites and 29 percent of all blacks in our earlier survey; see Parnes, et al., The Pre-Retirement Years, Vol. I, pp. 117-19.

[13] These high ratios are a reflection of the prevalence of offsetting moves among occupational categories. In the case of older men, career occupational shifts tended to be in a single direction. See Parnes, et al., The Pre-Retirement Years, Vol. I, pp. 119-20.

Table 5.6 Major Occupation Group of Current or Last Job Held by Ever-Married Respondents with Children, by Major Occupation Group of Longest Job between School and First Marriage, and Color[a]

(Percentage distribution of occupational destinations)

Occupation of first job / Occupation of current job	Professional, technical	Nonfarm managers, proprietors	Clerical	Sales	Blue-collar	Domestic service	Nondomestic service	Farm	Total percent	Total number (thousands)
WHITES										
Professional, technical	75	1	14	3	3	0	2	1	100	573
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	18	36	7	12	2	0	25	0	100	76
Clerical	5	7	59	10	8	1	8	1	100	2,390
Sales	5	6	28	20	16	1	20	3	100	400
Blue-collar	2	4	16	7	48	4	18	2	100	1,142
Domestic service	0	12	8	1	27	13	26	12	100	106
Nondomestic service	2	5	18	10	17	3	44	1	100	437
Farm	0	0	8	0	35	0	28	30	100	66
Total or average	12	6	36	9	19	2	15	2	100	
(Total number (thousands)	613	301	1,899	470	986	104	792	112		5,279
BLACKS										
Professional, technical	54	7	9	0	11	0	19	1	100	64
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	0	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	1
Clerical	9	1	53	1	23	7	6	0	100	94
Sales	22	0	0	48	24	0	6	0	100	19
Blue-collar	2	1	17	4	43	18	15	0	100	152
Domestic service	0	1	6	0	15	52	22	4	100	168
Nondomestic service	2	1	12	2	22	14	45	2	100	185
Farm	0	1	1	0	7	42	11	38	100	84
Total or average	7	2	15	2	22	24	23	6	100	
Total number (thousands)	53	12	119	19	179	188	180	45		797

(a) Includes only respondents who have worked at some time since January 1, 1966.

has gained workers in relatively large numbers from nearly every other group. On the other hand, despite large gains from the service, farm, and sales categories, blue-collar work has decreased somewhat. The same net loss has occurred in the clerical and related worker category.

It may be observed in Table 5.6 that the types of occupational changes made by black women have been considerably different from those made by white women. For example, while 75 percent of the ever-married white women who began their work careers in the professional-technical category remained in that group, the same is true for only 54 percent of the black women. The remaining blacks were much more likely to have moved to blue-collar or nondomestic service positions. Since the numbers of sample cases are small, this difference may result merely from sampling variation. However, if real, it is all the more perplexing when one realizes that the black, as compared to the white professional group, contains a much larger percentage of women with at least 16 years of education. We look forward to a more detailed analysis of mobility at some time in the future. At this point, we simply speculate that the pattern reflects some form of discrimination in the labor market perhaps associated with school desegregation of teaching staffs and restricted employment opportunities in general.

Other differences in occupational mobility patterns between white and black women 30 to 44 may be summarized rather easily. First of all, compared to ever-married whites, blacks who started in clerical positions are more likely to have moved to blue-collar work. Second, blacks who began as domestic service workers are four times as likely as their white counterparts (52 percent versus 13 percent) to have remained in the same category, while substantial proportions of blue-collar, nondomestic service, and farm workers shifted into such jobs. Finally, it is worth noting that, contrary to the pattern among whites, more black women moved into clerical positions than moved out. White women in this age cohort, however, are still over twice as likely as black women to be in the clerical category.

Table 5.7 presents the data of Table 5.6 in a different and somewhat more revealing manner.[14] In order to highlight the extent to which current and first occupations depart from a purely random relationship, the percentages in each column of Table 5.6 are divided by the corresponding percentages in the horizontal "total percent" row. The purpose and effect of doing this are best explained by an illustration. According to Table 5.6, white women in sales occupations at the beginning of their

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[14] This method of analysis has been suggested by the work of Peter M. Blau and Otis D. Duncan, The American Occupational Structure, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967), pp. 29-38.

Table 5.7 Relationship between Longest Job between School and First Marriage and Current (Last) Job Held by Ever-Married Respondents with Children, by Color[(a)] [(b)]

Occupation of first job / Occupation of current job	Professional, technical	Nonfarm managers, proprietors	Clerical	Sales	Blue-collar	Domestic service	Nondomestic service	Farm
	WHITES							
Professional, technical	6.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.5
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	1.5	6.0	0.2	1.3	0.1	0.0	1.7	0.0
Clerical	0.4	1.2	1.6	1.1	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5
Sales	0.4	1.0	0.8	2.2	0.8	0.5	1.3	1.5
Blue-collar	0.2	0.7	0.4	0.8	2.5	2.0	1.2	1.0
Domestic service	0.0	2.0	0.2	0.1	1.4	6.5	1.7	6.0
Nondomestic service	0.2	0.8	0.5	1.1	0.9	1.5	2.8	0.5
Farm	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	1.8	0.0	1.9	15.0
	BLACKS							
Professional, technical	7.7	3.5	0.6	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.8	0.2
Nonfarm managers, proprietors(c)	0.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Clerical	1.3	0.5	3.5	0.5	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.0
Sales(c)	3.1	0.0	0.0	24.0	1.1	0.0	0.3	0.0
Blue-collar	0.3	0.5	1.1	2.0	2.0	0.8	0.6	0.0
Domestic service	0.0	0.5	0.4	0.0	0.7	2.2	1.0	0.7
Nondomestic service	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.0	0.6	2.0	0.3
Farm	0.0	0.5	0.1	0.0	0.3	1.8	0.5	6.3

(a) Includes only respondents who have worked at some time since January 1, 1966.

(b) For explanation of table, see text, p. 155.

(c) There are too few sample cases in these cells to provide reliable estimates.

careers are more likely to have moved into clerical occupations (28 percent) than to have remained in sales (20 percent). While this is true in an absolute sense, it ignores the fact that white women in the relevant age category who are in clerical occupations outnumber those in sales by a four-to-one ratio (36 percent versus 9 percent). Thus, if current occupation were independent of initial occupation, one would have expected 36 percent of the saleswomen to have shifted to clerical occupations and only 9 percent to have remained in sales. Such a situation would be one in which every row of figures would be identical to the percentages in the "total" row. By dividing this "total" percentage into that for a given cell, a ratio is obtained which indicates whether remaining in or moving to the occupational group is greater (more than 1.0) or less (under 1.0) than what would be expected on the basis of complete freedom of movement among occupations. In our sample, this ratio for saleswomen who remained in the occupation is 2.2, in contrast with 0.8 for sales workers who moved into clerical positions. A rather literal interpretation would be that ever-married white women 30 to 44 years of age whose first jobs were in sales are over two times as likely as the total group to be in sales jobs now or in the recent past (since January 1, 1966). On the other hand, they are only four-fifths as likely as the total group to be in clerical positions.

While the ratios along the diagonals in Table 5.7 show quite clearly the influence of initial occupation, the overall pattern for the women in our sample is quite different from the pattern revealed by the work histories of men between the ages of 45 and 59. The barrier between white-collar and blue-collar occupations was quite evident in the latter case, being revealed by the fact that few cells relating white- and blue-collar work contained values of 1.0 or more.[15] As a consequence of rather heavy movement of white women from some white-collar jobs to service jobs and of black women from blue-collar and nondomestic service jobs to clerical positions, any barrier between the major types of occupations is certainly less evident in the case of women than of men. At the same time, however, with the exception of white women who moved to nondomestic service positions, values of 1.0 or higher occur most frequently on the diagonal or in cells near by.

The same data may be viewed from yet another point of view, showing for each occupational group of present (or, last) job the percentage of women recruited from each occupation-of-origin category (Table 5.8). The most "closed" occupational categories for white women have been the professional-technical and clerical occupations. The first, but not the second, have been relatively "closed" to black women starting their careers in other categories. Moreover, few blacks have entered farm

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[15] Parnes, et al., The Pre-Retirement Years, Vol. I, pp. 122-23.

Table 5.8 Major Occupation Group of Longest Job between School and First Marriage **Held** by Ever-Married Respondents with Children, by Major Occupation Group of Current (Last) Job and Color[(a)]

(Percentage distribution of occupational origins)

Occupation of first job / Occupation of current job	Professional, technical	Nonfarm managers, proprietors	Clerical	Sales	Blue-collar	Domestic service	Nondomestic service	Farm	Total or average	Total number (thousands)
	WHITES									
Professional, technical	70	2	4	4	2	0	2	5	11	573
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	2	9	0*	2	0*	0	3	0	2	76
Clerical	20	57	75	50	20	30	26	27	46	2,390
Sales	3	8	6	18	7	4	11	12	8	400
Blue-collar	3	14	10	16	57	39	27	23	22	1,142
Domestic service	0	4	0*	0*	3	14	4	12	2	106
Nondomestic service	1	7	4	10	8	14	25	4	8	437
Farm	0	0	0*	0	2	0	2	18	1	66
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	
Total number (thousands)	613	301	1,899	470	986	104	792	112	5,279	5,279
	BLACKS									
Professional, technical	64	35	5	0	4	0	7	2	8	64
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0*	1
Clerical	15	9	44	5	13	4	3	0	12	94
Sales	8	0	0	45	3	0	1	0	2	19
Blue-collar	6	10	22	29	38	16	13	0	20	152
Domestic service	0	16	10	0	15	48	21	14	22	168
Nondomestic service	7	16	19	21	24	14	48	10	24	185
Farm	0	7	1	0	3	19	6	74	11	84
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	
Total number (thousands)	53	12	119	19	179	188	180	45	797	797

(a) Restricted to respondents who have worked at some time since January 1, 1966.

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

work who were not there originally.[16] The latter situation is almost certainly a consequence of the declining importance of agriculture as a source of employment.

It is obviously difficult to account for the degree of apparent "openness" in an occupation. For example, are professional and technical workers who began their work careers in clerical positions predominantly those who have developed new skills since leaving school, or were their pre-existing skills underutilized in their first jobs? A clear interpretation of the data in Table 5.8 must await an answer to this question at a later date.

The foregoing evidence points to a substantial amount of movement among occupations during the work careers of adult women. Nevertheless, the amount of movement is certainly much less than that experienced by men, and on balance the overall pattern is not clearly in either an upward or downward direction.

III CHANGES IN OCCUPATIONAL STATUS

Another way of describing the pattern of occupational change during a career is to assess the extent of vertical movement, that is, to determine whether an individual has moved up or down the occupational scale or has remained at essentially the same level. We realize, of course, that a family's socioeconomic status is usually measured by the husband's social position rather than his wife's. Indeed, our purpose here is not to analyze socioeconomic status as that term is commonly conceived, but merely to examine the factors associated with the respondent's movement among a hierarchy of occupations.

Measurement

For purposes of measuring movement among occupations, we use the Duncan socioeconomic index of occupations, which assigns a two-digit status score to each three-digit occupational category in the Census classification scheme. The Duncan scores range from 0 to 96, and reflect for each occupation: (1) the proportion of male workers in 1950 with educational attainment of four years of high school or more; and (2) the proportion of men with incomes of $3,500 or more in 1949.[17] Although the index was constructed for purposes of analyzing the social positions of men, there is a rather high correlation between scores measured in this way and scores which would have been assigned had female educational attainment and income been used in constructing a comparable index.[18] Illustrative of the relation between Duncan index scores and occupations are the following examples of three-digit occupations for each 10-point interval of the Duncan index:

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[16] Some occupations may be "closed" in the sense that, although women aspire to such positions, barriers restrict entry. Other occupations are "closed" not because entry is restricted but because few experienced labor force members desire to move into them.

[17] See Otis Dudley Duncan, "A Socioeconomic Index of All Occupations," in Albert J. Reiss, Jr., and others, Occupations and Social Status (New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1961), pp. 109-38; Blau and Duncan, The American Occupational Structure, pp. 117-28.

0-9	private household workers (n.e.c.); farm laborers
10-19	farmers (owners and tenants); assemblers; hairdressers, cosmetologists; waiters and waitresses
20-29	practical nurses; dressmakers and seamstresses, except factory
30-39	salesmen and sales clerks, retail trade; structural metal workers
40-49	professional nurses; technicians, medical and dental; clerical and kindred workers (n.e.c.)
50-59	bookkeepers; salaried managers, officials, and proprietors (n.e.c.); retail trade
60-69	librarians; social and welfare workers, except group; secretaries
70-79	teachers, elementary school; buyers and department heads, store
80-89	personnel and labor-relations workers; editors and reporters
90-96	chemical engineers; physicians and surgeons

Despite the rather high correlation between the Duncan index and hypothetical scores that might have been derived from Census data on women, there is considerable "looseness" in the association.[19] Therefore, we are inclined to place little reliance on any relatively small change in the Duncan index as a measure of vertical mobility. For this reason, we have designated movement on the Duncan scale of plus or minus 15 or more points as upward and downward mobility, respectively. Smaller changes are not shown in the tables which follow. However, those whose first and current jobs are in the same three-digit occupational category--i.e., those who have been occupationally immobile--are shown separately.[20]

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[18] The reader is referred to Appendix D which contains an analysis of the degree of association in the Duncan index between scores for men and women.

[19] Careful examination of the index reveals a small number of anomalies. Student professional nurses, for example, have a score of 51, while regular professional nurses rank lower at 46.

[20] Obviously, therefore, percentages shown in the tables generally fail to add to 100. However, interest often centers on the proportion of women who have been immobile from first to current jobs, that is, those who have not changed three-digit occupations, and on the ratio of upwardly mobile individuals to those who have been downwardly mobile.

Before examining the data, it is well to reflect for a moment on the statistical and logical problems involved in interpreting the index scores. It is clear that the probability of an upward (or downward) move depends to an important degree on the occupation in which one begins. To be more specific, women whose first jobs have Duncan scores of 82 or higher cannot possibly move up by 15 or more points; neither can those with initial scores of 14 or lower move down to the same extent. Furthermore, it can be predicted with considerable assurance that the latter group will include larger proportions of upwardly mobile women than the former. In examining the relationship of vertical mobility to other variables, this tendency of "regression toward the mean" should be kept in mind: if occupational change were completely random, disproportionately large numbers of those who start in high-status jobs would move down, and disproportionately large numbers of those who start in low-status jobs would move up. For this reason, initial occupation is used as a control variable in virtually all of the tables that follow.

Upward and Downward Occupational Mobility: An Overview

Nearly a third of American women 30 to 44 years of age are serving in the same three-digit occupation in which they began their careers (Table 5.9). While the remaining analysis in this section is limited to ever-married women who have had at least one child, Table 5.9 suggests that marriage and childbearing increase the chances that a woman will experience downward mobility from first job to current (or last) job. A larger proportion of ever-married white women moved down than up. Among such women who have had at least one child, 15 percent were upwardly mobile, while 20 percent experienced downward shifts. It is worth noting that, on average, never-married white women without children moved up the Duncan index, suggesting that, despite starting higher on the occupational scale, strong attachment to the labor force enhances career prospects. The number of sample cases is large enough to permit reasonably confident intercolor comparisons of vertical mobility only in the case of ever-married women with children. When occupation of first job is controlled, upward mobility is less frequent and downward mobility more frequent among the blacks than among the whites.

Age and Educational Attainment

Age As noted above, the remaining discussion in this section focuses on ever-married women who have had children. Inadequate sample cases prevent a comparable tabular analysis of those in other marital status categories. It would appear that age is positively associated with upward mobility and inversely related to remaining in the same three-digit occupation. Although a number of explanations are plausible, it is quite likely that greater work experience and job rights account for the fact that a greater proportion of women 40 to 44 years of age than of younger women have been upwardly mobile. While it is true that a disproportionate number of older women may have begun their careers as blue-collar workers during World War II, white women in the oldest age bracket who took first jobs in either the clerical and sales or

Table 5.9 Proportion of Respondents Remaining in Same Occupation and Proportions Experiencing Upward and Downward Mobility between First and Current (Last) Job, by Marital and Family Status, Occupation of First Job, and Color[a]

Marital and family status and occupation of first job	Percentage[b] of total			Total or average	
	Upwardly mobile	In same occupation	Downwardly mobile	Total number (thousands)	Vertical percentage
	WHITES				
Ever married, had children	15	27	20	5,279	100
Professional, managerial	3	51	23	649	12
Clerical, sales	11	26	30	2,790	53
Blue-collar	24	18	4	1,142	22
Domestic service	23	10	0	106	2
Nondomestic service	32	28	0	437	8
Farm	8	28	0	66	1
Ever married, no children	13	40	16	863	100
Professional, managerial	0	58	27	116	13
Clerical, sales	14	41	18	454	53
Blue-collar	14	40	9	170	20
Domestic service	0	0	0	30	3
Nondomestic service	36	5	0	59	7
Farm	0	31	0	14	2
Never married, no children[c]	19	39	9	653	100
Professional, managerial	0	60	12	173	26
Clerical, sales	26	25	12	300	46
Blue-collar	26	45	0	78	12
Domestic service	37	0	0	38	6
Nondomestic service	16	73	12	40	6
Farm	0	100	0	5	1
	BLACKS				
Ever married, had children	15	31	11	797	100
Professional, managerial	3	31	44	65	8
Clerical, sales	16	27	38	112	14
Blue-collar	24	29	5	152	19
Domestic service	11	46	0	168	21
Nondomestic service	21	18	4	185	23
Farm	3	35	0	84	11
Ever married, no children	9	46	6	159	100
Professional, managerial	0	66	12	19	12
Clerical, sales	16	59	21	28	18
Blue-collar	12	25	0	27	17
Domestic service	3	62	0	37	23
Nondomestic service	12	32	4	27	17
Farm	13	13	0	15	9
Never married, no children[c]	16	32	16	61	100
Professional, managerial	0	86	0	9	15
Clerical, sales	0	40	60	15	25
Blue-collar	33	0	16	7	11
Domestic service	32	5	0	17	28
Nondomestic service	24	33	0	9	15
Farm	0	53	0	4	7

(a) Includes only respondents who worked at some time since January 1, 1966.

(b) Upward and downward mobility are defined as moves on the Duncan index of plus or minus 15 points or more, respectively; same occupation refers to three-digit Census code. Individual percentages may not add to 100, since lateral moves of plus or minus 14 points or less are not shown.

(c) Includes only respondents who held a job for at least six months after leaving full-time school; first such job is tabulated as "first job."

service categories also experienced greater upward mobility. The pattern of occupational mobility by age among the black women in our sample is somewhat irregular.

Educational attainment With the exception of those in service and farm occupations, black women, on the average, possess somewhat greater education than white women who entered the same occupational groups after leaving school (Table 5.10). It may be observed, moreover, that within most occupational categories, and for both color groups, education is associated positively with upward and negatively with downward mobility, although the number of black sample cases is often inadequate to avoid the possibility of rather substantial sampling error. Among white women the anticipated relationship between education and occupational mobility holds within each occupation group of initial job. For example, among white women with 13 years or more of education who started in the clerical and sales field, one-quarter moved up occupationally, while 21 percent moved downward. Of those who began in these same occupational categories with 11 years or less of formal education, only 7 percent moved up, at the same time that 41 percent shifted downward.

Labor Force Attachment

In the case of ever-married white women, degree of attachment to the labor force over time, as measured by the percentage of years since leaving school that the respondent worked at least six months, is negatively related to the amount of occupational mobility (Table 5.11). Of those whose lifetime participation by this measure is less than 25 percent, almost four-fifths are in a different three-digit occupation from that of their first job. On the other hand, of those white women whose lifetime participation rate is 100 percent, the corresponding fraction is only about one-half. Part of this difference is attributable to the overall greater degree of participation by women in the professional-managerial category. Nevertheless, the difference is real, and the greater frequency of mobility among those least attached to the work force shows up in a disproportionate amount of downward occupational mobility. Although the number of sample cases is often too small to permit reliable inferences, it would appear that essentially the same relationship between occupational mobility and career labor force attachment also holds in the case of black women 30 to 44 years of age.

Although not shown here, we have examined the simple correlation between occupational mobility and certain other variables related to degree of past labor force attachment: job tenure, number of children, and proportion of years since first child was born that respondent has worked six months or more. Each shows essentially the same relationship as that indicated in Table 5.11.

Table 5.10 Proportion of Ever-Married Respondents with Children Who Remained in Same Occupation and Proportions Experiencing Upward and Downward Mobility between Longest Job between School and First Marriage and Current (Last) Job, by Occupation of First Job, Highest Year of School Completed, and Color(a)

Occupation of first job and highest year of school completed	Percent upwardly mobile	Percent in same occupation	Percent downwardly mobile	Total number (thousands)	Vertical percentage
			WHITES		
Professional, managerial	3	51	23	649	100
12 years or less	0	40	36	220	34
13 years or more	5	56	17	428	66
Clerical, sales	11	26	30	2,790	100
11 years or less	7	21	41	418	15
12 years	10	28	29	1,996	72
13 years or more	25	21	21	376	14
Blue-collar	24	18	4	1,142	100
8 years or less	17	24	9	262	23
9-11 years	17	20	4	401	35
12 years or more	33	14	3	479	42
Service and farm	28	25	0	609	100
8 years or less	13	24	0	187	31
9-11 years	34	28	0	233	38
12 years or more	36	24	0	183	30
Total or average	15	27	20	5,279	100
8 years or less	13	23	13	530	9
9-11 years	17	23	15	1,034	20
12 years	13	27	24	2,849	54
13-15 years	23	35	19	500	10
16 years or more	12	42	15	357	7
			BLACKS		
Professional, managerial	9	31	46	65	100
12 years or less	5	15	75	21	32
13 years or more	9	41	32	44	68
Clerical, sales	16	28	41	112	100
11 years or less	11	33	56	10	9
12 years	8	33	41	77	68
13 years or more	44	8	36	26	23
Blue-collar	32	29	21	152	100
8 years or less	26	15	52	27	19
9-11 years	16	47	11	46	31
12 years or more	42	24	17	76	51
Service and farm	31	32	10	437	100
8 years or less	16	46	10	182	42
9-11 years	36	28	7	166	38
12 years or more	54	10	11	90	20
Total or average	26	29	19	797	100
8 years or less	17	40	16	219	28
9-11 years	29	30	13	234	29
12 years	30	20	24	250	31
13-15 years	32	21	35	42	5
16 years or more	28	31	24	49	6

(a) Includes only respondents who worked at some time since January 1, 1966.

Table 5.11 Proportion of Ever-Married Respondents with Children Remaining in Same Occupation and Proportions Experiencing Upward and Downward Mobility between Longest Job between School and First Marriage and Current (Last) Job, by Occupation of Longest Job between School and First Marriage, Average Labor Force Participation Rate since Leaving School, and Color[a]

Occupation of first job and average labor force participation rate since leaving school	Percent upwardly mobile	Percent in same occupation	Percent downwardly mobile	Total number (thousands)	Vertical percentage
	WHITES				
Professional and managerial	6	49	33	649	100
50 percent or more	5	59	31	385	61
Less than 50 percent	8	43	32	246	39
Clerical and sales	22	25	39	2,790	100
50 percent or more	24	32	33	1,169	43
Less than 50 percent	22	22	46	1,579	58
Blue-collar	36	18	18	1,142	100
50 percent or more	35	23	15	494	44
Less than 50 percent	39	15	22	621	56
Service and farm	46	25	8	609	100
50 percent or more	43	34	5	266	45
Less than 50 percent	48	18	11	326	55
Total or average	25	26	29	5,279	100
100 percent	30	47	14	275	5
50 percent to 99.9 percent	25	32	27	2,068	40
25 percent to 49.9 percent	25	22	34	1,554	30
Less than 25 percent	28	21	35	1,263	24
	BLACKS				
Professional and managerial	9	31	20	65	100
50 percent or more	9	40	30	42	76
Less than 50 percent	7	0	93	14	24
Clerical and sales	16	28	41	112	100
50 percent or more	22	21	39	69	62
Less than 50 percent	7	36	45	42	38
Blue-collar	32	29	21	152	100
50 percent or more	33	40	12	85	63
Less than 50 percent	28	10	35	49	37
Service and farm	31	32	10	437	100
50 percent or more	32	28	12	215	58
Less than 50 percent	35	32	9	153	42
Total or average	26	29	19	797	100
100 percent	19	38	16	74	11
50 percent to 99.9 percent	30	28	18	349	50
25 percent to 49.9 percent	28	23	23	128	18
Less than 25 percent	25	28	24	143	20

[a] Includes only respondents who worked at some time since January 1, 1966.

Respondent's Earnings

As indicated earlier in this chapter, the Duncan socioeconomic index of occupations is based on Census data with respect to the earnings and education of men. It is hardly surprising, therefore, that the earnings of women in our sample during 1966 are correlated in the expected direction with lifetime occupational mobility (Table 5.12). Ignoring occupational groups, a far greater proportion of white women earning less than $1,000 during that year have been downwardly rather than upwardly mobile (41 percent compared to 23 percent). At the other extreme, white women earning $4,000 or more are much more likely to have been upwardly rather than downwardly mobile--in this instance, 30 percent compared to 15 percent. While the number of sample cases in at least two of the occupational categories shown in Table 5.12 is quite small, it would appear that the expected relationship also holds for black women. The relationship between downward mobility and respondent's earnings appears somewhat attenuated, however, suggesting the possibility that some black women who began their careers in professional and related occupations may have found better-paying job opportunities in occupations ranked somewhat lower on the socioeconomic index. This will remain speculative until we are able to examine the data in more detail.

Summary

What is reasonably clear on the basis of the foregoing analysis is that the occupational mobility experience of women is (1) rather modest in both directions; (2) perhaps related to the obsolescence of knowledge and skills; (3) certainly influenced by the availability of various kinds of jobs (part-time, shift work, etc.); and (4) strongly associated with educational attainment and labor force attachment. Overall, a larger number of ever-married women with children have been downwardly rather than upwardly mobile, and there is clear evidence that marriage, childbearing, and the extent of absence from the labor force are strongly related to lifetime changes in occupation. Those who have been absent from the labor force for extensive periods of time are much less likely than others to be in the same three-digit occupation and more likely to have been downwardly mobile.

IV GEOGRAPHIC MOVEMENT

One means of measuring the extent of geographic mobility among the women covered by our survey is to compare the location of their first jobs with their current residence. On this basis, slightly less than half of ever-married women 30 to 44 years of age, with children, have

Table 5.12 Proportion of Ever-Married Respondents with Children Remaining in Same Occupation and Proportions Experiencing Upward and Downward Mobility between Longest Job between School and First Marriage and Current (Last) Job, by Occupation of Longest Job between School and First Marriage, Total Earnings of Respondent in 1966, and Color(a)

Occupation of first job and earnings of respondent in 1966	Percent upwardly mobile	Percent in same occupation	Percent downwardly mobile	Total number (thousands)	Vertical percentage
	WHITES				
Professional, managerial	3	51	23	649	100
Less than $2,000	1	46	38	302	47
$2,000 or more	5	55	9	343	53
Clerical, sales	11	26	30	2,790	100
Less than $2,000	10	19	38	1,417	52
$2,000 - 3,999	9	25	30	562	21
$4,000 or more	16	40	12	718	27
Blue-collar	24	18	4	1,142	100
Less than $2,000	22	9	3	448	41
$2,000 - 3,999	29	25	7	394	35
$4,000 or more	21	25	4	262	24
Service and farm	47	25	8	609	100
Less than $2,000	40	29	12	366	60
$2,000 or more	58	20	0	243	40
Total or average	27	28	31	5,279	100
Less than $1,000	23	21	41	1,833	36
$1,000 - 1,999	24	23	38	733	14
$2,000 - 3,999	29	27	26	1,279	25
$4,000 or more	30	38	15	1,267	25
	BLACKS				
Professional, managerial	9	31	46	65	100
Less than $2,000	8	4	71	24	40
$2,000 or more	8	44	36	37	60
Clerical, sales	16	28	41	112	100
Less than $2,000	4	35	54	27	26
$2,000 - 3,999	8	42	31	26	25
$4,000 or more	31	22	35	50	49
Blue-collar	32	29	21	152	100
Less than $2,000	21	14	38	76	66
$2,000 - 3,999	34	47	5	39	25
$4,000 or more	41	48	3	30	9
Service and farm	31	32	10	437	100
Less than $2,000	20	39	11	280	64
$2,000 or more	51	20	7	154	35
Total or average	26	29	19	797	100
Less than $1,000	17	36	21	274	35
$1,000 - 1,999	21	25	25	145	19
$2,000 - 3,999	37	23	15	218	28
$4,000 or more	34	35	16	137	18

(a) Includes only respondents who have worked at some time since January 1, 1966 as wage and salary workers.

been geographically mobile (Table 5.13). This is the proportion who currently do not reside in the same county of SMSA as that in which their longest job between school and marriage was located. The corresponding proportion of migrants among black women is two-fifths.[21]

Occupation and Geographic Movement

Among white women, the proportion whose first jobs were in the same county or SMSA as current residence ranges between 43 percent of those who began their careers in the professional and managerial category and 57 percent who started in the clerical and sales field (Table 5.13). In the blue-collar and nondomestic service occupational groups, the only other two for which there are sufficient sample cases, the percentage of geographically immobile white women is 51. Among the black women, those in the professional and managerial categories have also been more mobile than average, while domestic service workers have been least mobile.

Geographic and Occupational Movement

There is a fairly clear and consistent relationship between geographic and occupational movement subsequent to entrance into the labor force. Those who have been geographically immobile are more likely to have remained in the same specific, three-digit occupation and less likely to have been upwardly or downwardly mobile occupationally (Table 5.14). The relationship is particularly pronounced in the case of black women. Over a third of the immobile black women have remained in the same specific occupation between first and current jobs, but the same is true of only 17 percent of those who have crossed county or SMSA lines. As in the case of white women, the result in terms of occupational mobility has been to place a somewhat larger proportion of blacks in both the upwardly and downwardly mobile categories. Finally, it should be observed that despite the small number of sample cases, it may very well be that women of both color groups in the professional-technical and managerial categories suffer most in terms of occupational status when they move geographically. Nearly a third of the mobile but only 14 percent of the immobile whites from these occupations moved down the occupational scale by 15 points or more. In the case of black women, comparable proportions are 57 percent and 35 percent. The evidence is consistent with the view that married women not infrequently sacrifice their own careers in favor of their husbands' when moving from place to place.

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[21] A recent study of geographic mobility reports that 57 percent of all heads of households live in different labor market areas today from those in which they resided upon leaving high school. John B. Lansing and Eva Mueller, The Geographic Mobility of Labor (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Survey Research Center, 1967), p. 17.

Table 5.13 Location of Longest Job between School and First Marriage Relative to Current Residence of Ever-Married Respondents with Children, by Occupation of Longest Job between School and First Marriage and Color(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Location of first job relative to current residence	Professional, managerial	Clerical, sales	Blue-collar	Domestic service	Nondomestic service	Farm	Total or average
	WHITES						
Same SMSA or county	43	57	51	45	51	58	53
Different SMSA or county, same state	20	18	18	22	17	15	18
Different state	30	23	26	28	31	6	25
Elsewhere	6	2	4	5	1	21	4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	649	2,790	1,142	106	437	66	5,279
	BLACKS						
Same SMSA or county	52	60	60	74	60	53	61
Different SMSA or county, same state	16	11	11	9	15	14	12
Different state	29	16	28	18	23	33	24
Elsewhere	3	13	1	0	3	0	3
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	65	112	152	168	185	84	797

(a) Includes only respondents who worked at some time since January 1, 1966.

Table 5.14 Extent of Occupational Mobility between Longest Job between School and First Marriage and Current (Last) Job of Ever-Married Respondents with Children, by Location of Longest Job between School and First Marriage Relative to Current Residence, Occupation of Longest Job between School and First Marriage, and Color[a]

Occupation of first job	Same SMSA or county				Different SMSA or county			
	Percent upwardly mobile	Percent in same occupation	Percent downwardly mobile	Total number (thousands)	Percent upwardly mobile	Percent in same occupation	Percent downwardly mobile	Total number (thousands)
	WHITES							
Professional and managerial	2	57	14	264	3	40	32	347
Clerical and sales	10	28	29	1,503	13	20	31	1,148
Blue-collar	21	19	2	553	29	15	7	527
Domestic service	28	22	0	45	7	0	0	57
Nondomestic service	42	24	0	211	26	25	0	204
Farm	13	47	0	38	0	0	0	28
Total or average	14	29	18	2,637	16	21	22	2,322
	BLACKS							
Professional and managerial	0	54	35	32	3	10	57	30
Clerical and sales	14	25	36	63	19	21	45	42
Blue-collar	18	32	7	83	27	23	4	56
Domestic service	16	47	0	103	5	27	0	37
Nondomestic service	19	18	7	103	25	13	0	71
Farm	4	58	0	42	3	3	0	37
Total or average	14	36	11	439	16	17	14	277

(a) Includes only respondents who worked at some time since January 1, 1966.

V SUMMARY

A substantial amount of movement takes place between home and the labor market and within the latter from the time women begin their work careers until they reach their thirties and forties. For the most part, the measures used in this chapter understate the extent of the latter type of movement, since they are based largely on a comparison of longest job between school and first marriage and current (or most recent) job, and thus ignore intervening changes. Nevertheless, among ever-married women with children, approximately 73 percent work in a different three-digit occupation and nearly half in a different occupational group from that in which they started their work careers.[22] Moreover, nearly 50 percent have moved to a community other than the one in which their longest job between school and marriage was located.

A number of these changes represent improvement, but in general proportionately more ever-married women have moved downward than have moved upward occupationally. The work histories reveal a considerable volume of offsetting moves between white-collar, blue-collar, and nondomestic service jobs. It would appear that expansion of clerical and sales positions, many of which have distinct work schedule advantages, has induced many professional and technical women to take such positions later in life. At the same time, a rather substantial number of women who started in clerical and sales posts subsequently moved to blue-collar and especially nondomestic service jobs. This pattern of downward mobility, moreover, appears to be related to extensive periods of absence from the labor force and to inadequate education.

There are important differences, however, between white and black women in almost all respects. For example, black women 30 to 44 years of age have been less mobile geographically than their white counterparts. Controlling for initial occupation, blacks are more likely than whites to have moved downward. Since they started at an overall lower level, however, black women as a group have registered less downward occupational movement than white women, according to the Duncan index of socioeconomic status. The net effect has been to leave white and black women in essentially the same relative positions as when they started their careers.

It is exceedingly difficult to untangle the separate effects on career beginnings of educational achievement, formative influences, and the pattern of labor demand. Nevertheless, a woman's educational attainment (in terms of both years and specific vocational preparation) is highly predictive of her career chances. Women in both color groups with less than nine years of schooling, for example, entered a much different set of occupations from those entered by women with 16 or more years. At the same time, it is also apparent that within all but the highest educational attainment category, black women started their careers in lower level occupations than those available to white women. Specifically, a larger proportion of black women than white began their careers in farm and especially service occupations. Far fewer took jobs in the clerical and sales, or blue-collar categories. A relatively small proportion of black women had training in typing and shorthand. The absence of shorthand, in turn, has apparently lessened the chances for a black woman to begin her career in the clerical and sales field.

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[22] The occupational categories used in the tabulations are: professional and technical; nonfarm managers and proprietors; clerical; sales; blue-collar; domestic service; nondomestic service; and farm.

CHAPTER SIX*

WORK ATTITUDES, SATISFACTION, AND JOB ATTACHMENT

In a study of the labor market behavior of women, attitudes toward work outside the home are important for at least three reasons. First, knowledge of work attitudes and other social-psychological variables may add to our understanding of actual labor market activity. Second, such measures may facilitate the prediction of future labor market behavior even if causal relationships are not clearly understood. Finally, the attitudes and satisfactions of women are important in their own right, since they are related to individual family and societal welfare and presumably are subject to modification through both private and public decisions concerning such things as provision of day-care services and the scheduling of work outside the home.

Relationships between attitudes toward the work role and characteristics such as occupation, marital and family status, and rate of pay are explored in the first section of this chapter. An analysis of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction follows in the second section. In the third section, interrelationships between attitudes and satisfaction are examined. Finally, the prospective interfirm mobility of the sample of women is described and analyzed.

I WORK ATTITUDES

Commitment to Work

Variations in labor force participation have been emphasized throughout this report. As indicated in Chapter III, economic variables such as family income are quite helpful in "explaining" why some women work while others do not. Nevertheless, in seeking a more direct way of measuring the importance of economic rewards in the work decisions of women, we asked the following hypothetical question of those who were employed at the time of the survey: "If, by some chance you (and your husband) were to get enough money to live comfortably without working, do you think that you would work anyway?" Two-thirds of the black women say that they would work, while this is true of only three-fifths of white women (Table 6.1).[1]

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* This chapter was written by John R. Shea.

[1] The proportion of men 45 to 59 years of age who said they would work if they received enough money to live on was 78 percent for the whites and 74 percent for the blacks. Parnes, et al., The Pre-Retirement Years, Vol. I, p. 204.

Table 6.1 Proportion of Employed Respondents Who Would Work If Received Enough Money to Live without Working, by Occupation and Color

Occupation	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent who would work	Total number (thousands)	Percent who would work
Professional, managerial	1,459	74	147	76
Clerical, sales	2,969	60	215	62
Blue-collar	1,359	45	264	59
Domestic service	148	40	269	66
Nondomestic service	1,003	56	323	74
Farm	181	57	34	84
Total or average	7,120	59	1,253	67

Occupation As anticipated, women in professional and managerial positions express a greater willingness to work in the absence of financial need than those in other occupations. White clerical and sales workers rank second behind those in professional and managerial positions, while domestic service workers rank lowest. In the case of black women, however, no consistent pattern of commitment emerges with respect to the socioeconomic level of occupations: blue-collar, clerical, and sales positions have the smallest proportion of respondents who say that they would work if they had enough money to live on. While intercolor differences in work commitment are rather small among those in white-collar occupations, the same is not true of those in blue-collar, service, and farm occupations. In these categories, blacks register substantially higher degrees of work commitment than whites. Until a multivariate analysis of these data becomes possible, we are unable to offer an explanation for this pattern.

Marital and family status There is rather substantial variation in commitment to work between married and nonmarried women (Table 6.2). In the case of both color groups, the proportion of married women who say they would continue to work is over 10 percentage points lower than the proportion of nonmarried women. The presence of children in the home and the ages of such children also are associated with commitment to work, at least among white women. The proportion who would work in the absence of financial necessity declines from 63 percent among those with no children under 18 years of age to 51 percent among those with one or more children under six. The pattern is far less distinct, however, in the case of black women.

Table 6.2 Commitment to Work of Respondents in the Labor Force, by Marital Status, Ages of Children Living at Home, and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Marital status and commitment to work	WHITES				BLACKS			
	No children under 18	Children 6-17, none younger	Children under 6	Total or average	No children under 18	Children 6-17, none younger	Children under 6	Total or average
Married								
Would work	63	56	51	56	66	62	62	63
Would not work	33	40	45	40	29	32	37	33
Undecided	4	4	4	4	5	6	1	4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,097	3,304	1,404	5,805	180	406	262	847
Nonmarried								
Would work	75	60	45	67	77	70	80	74
Would not work	16	35	55	26	20	28	18	23
Undecided	9	5	0	7	3	3	3	3
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	902	569	139	1,610	157	235	121	513
Total or average								
Would work	68	56	51	58	71	65	67	67
Would not work	25	39	46	37	25	30	31	29
Undecided	6	4	3	5	4	5	2	4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,999	3,873	1,543	7,415	337	641	383	1,360

Attitude toward employment of mothers It seems reasonable to hypothesize that married women with relatively favorable views on the propriety of labor market activity of women with children would manifest a stronger commitment to work than those with contrary views. Although there appears to be some relationship of this nature, it is not particularly strong (Table 6.3). In neither color group is there more than a 5 percentage point spread in willingness to work between those who express permissive as contrasted to opposed attitudes toward the employment of mothers.

Table 6.3 Commitment to Work of Married Respondents in the Labor Force, by Attitude toward Employment of Mothers and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Commitment to work	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Permissive	Opposed	Total or average(a)	Permissive	Opposed	Total or average(a)
Would work	60	55	56	65	61	63
Would not work	37	41	40	28	38	33
Undecided	3	4	4	6	1	4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,748	1,599	5,833	336	222	863

(a) Total includes respondents classified as "ambivalent."

Reasons for commitment to work In an attempt to probe the motivations and perceptions underlying responses to the question on desire to continue working in the absence of financial need, each respondent was asked: "Why do you feel that you would work?" or "Why do you feel that you would not work?" and "On what would it depend?" Although the response patterns of the blacks and whites vary somewhat, the differences seem rather modest. (Table 6.4). In any case, one-third of those who would work give "Nothing to do, be bored" as a reason. About two-fifths of those who would not continue to work give "More time for family" as the reason.

Motivation to Work

Having examined the respondents' general orientation toward work, we turn now to the question whether they tend to emphasize extrinsic or intrinsic rewards in employment. All respondents in the labor force at the time of the survey were asked: "What would you say is the more important thing about any job--good wages or liking the kind of work you are doing?"

Table 6.4 Reason of Employed Respondents for Commitment to Work, by Color(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Reason	WHITES	BLACKS
Those who would continue to work:		
Like current job	8	6
Still young; good health	1	1
Enjoy work; able to work	12	18
Nothing to do; be bored	37	31
Companionship of workers	8	6
To get out of the house	10	8
Unsatisfied if not working	10	11
Other	14	18
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,151	833
Those who would not continue to work:		
Dislike current work	0*	0*
In poor health	0*	4
Do not enjoy work, unable	6	7
Have hobbies or plans	7	2
Not get along with fellow workers	0*	0*
More time for family	37	43
Only work for necessity	10	12
Want to take it easy	12	14
Rather be a housewife	17	9
Other	9	9
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	2,579	366

(a) Excludes those whose commitment to work was "undecided."
* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

Marital and family status   A large majority of women claim that liking the work is more important than good wages (Table 6.5). As in the case of middle-aged men, however, there are rather pronounced intercolor differences. While nearly four-fifths of the white women say that liking the work is more important than good wages, only three-fifths of the black women hold this view.[2] As might be expected, the presence of young children in the home appears to make a difference in the relative importance attached to economic rewards. With the exception of nonmarried black women, those with children under six years of age place greater emphasis on wages than do women with no children or those with older children. While this response pattern is consistent with an "economic need" hypothesis, there are other plausible explanations for the difference. Women with small children may sense greater social pressure to stay in the home and, therefore, perceive economic needs as a more legitimate reason for working. Moreover, the differences under consideration may reflect differences in occupational composition of the several marital and family status categories, since there is a relationship between occupation and the relative evaluation of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, as will be shown below.

Occupation   Women in white-collar jobs, particularly in the professional and managerial groups, are more likely than those in other occupations to emphasize the importance of liking the work rather than good wages (Table 6.6). Variation by occupational group is even more pronounced than variation by marital and family status. Until we are able to examine the data in a multivariate framework, however, we will not be able to assess the independent influence on motivation to work of such interrelated factors as family income, number and ages of dependents, educational attainment, and occupation. It is noteworthy that the gross intercolor difference in work motivation becomes smaller, generally speaking, when occupation is controlled and disappears completely in the case of professional and managerial workers.

II   JOB SATISFACTION

Degree of Satisfaction

The vast majority of employed women between the ages of 30 and 44 have favorable attitudes toward their jobs. Over nine-tenths of both the

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[2] Comparable proportions among white and black men 45 to 59 years of age in 1966 were 81 and 52 percent, respectively.

Table 6.5 Motivation to Work of Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers, by Marital Status, Ages of Children Living at Home, and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Marital status and motivation to work	WHITES				BLACKS			
	No children under 18	Children 6-17, none younger	Children under 6	Total or average	No children under 18	Children 6-17, none younger	Children under 6	Total or average
Married								
Good wages	21	21	24	22	31	30	47	36
.Liking the work	79	79	76	78	69	70	53	64
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,012	2,748	1,011	4,771	169	353	229	751
Nonmarried								
Good wages	20	19	31	20	51	43	46	46
Liking the work	80	81	69	80	49	57	54	54
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	849	524	123	1,496	140	211	106	456
Total or average								
Good wages	21	21	24	21	40	35	46	40
Liking the work	79	79	76	79	60	65	54	60
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,861	3,271	1,134	6,267	309	563	335	1,207

Table 6.6 Motivation to Work of Employed Respondents, by Occupation and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Motivation to work	Professional, managerial	Clerical, sales	Blue-collar	Domestic service	Nondomestic service	Farm	Total or average
	WHITES						
Good wages	12	19	32	22	22	10	20
Liking the work	88	81	68	78	78	90	80
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,459	2,969	1,359	148	1,003	181	7,120
	BLACKS						
Good wages	12	27	49	50	38	85	39
Liking the work	88	73	51	50	62	15	61
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	147	215	264	269	323	34	1,253

whites and the blacks report liking their jobs either very much or fairly well.[3] Although women in our sample appear more satisfied than workers in general, there has been such great diversity among different studies in the methods of defining and measuring job satisfaction that there is no reason to expect them to yield identical measurements.[4] Over two-thirds of white women like their jobs very much, while the proportion of black women in this category is nearly three-fifths (Table 6.7).

Occupation and education It comes as no surprise to find that with few exceptions the higher a woman's occupational level the greater is her job satisfaction. As nearly all studies have reported, a greater proportion of white-collar workers than of workers in other occupational categories are highly satisfied with their jobs. Among the white women in our sample, professional and managerial, clerical and sales, and nondomestic service occupation categories contain the largest proportions of highly satisfied workers, ranging from 81 percent in the first case to 64 percent in the third. Blue-collar, farm, and domestic service workers express somewhat less satisfaction. Among black women, the pattern is roughly similar, except that the rank orders are reversed between those in clerical or sales jobs and those in nondomestic service and between farm and domestic service workers.

In most cases, cell frequencies are too small to permit a generalization concerning the association between satisfaction and the level of educational attainment, controlling for occupation. While women in both color groups with 13 or more years of schooling are substantially more satisfied than

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[3] Our finding that only 5 percent of employed women in this age range express some dislike for their jobs is lower than the 13 percent median number of dissatisfied workers reported in Blauner's summaries of recent studies of workers in various age and sex categories and the 12 to 13 percent median reported in Personnel and Guidance Journal summaries. Robert Blauner, "Extent of Satisfaction: A Review of General Research," Chapter 3 in Timothy W. Costello and Sheldon S. Zalkind, Psychology in Administration (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963); Personnel and Guidance Journal annual reports on job satisfaction research, 1964 and 1965, as cited in U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Report of the President (Washington, D.C.; Government Printing Office, April 1968), p. 48.

[4] Victor H. Vroom, Work and Motivation (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964), p. 100. It is perhaps worthy of mention, however, that an identical question produced very similar responses among employed men between the ages of 45 and 59 years of age in mid-1966. The proportion of them who expressed some dislike for their jobs was 7 percent, as compared with 5 percent among the group of women under consideration here.

Table 6.7 Proportion of Employed Respondents Highly Satisfied with Jobs, by Occupation, Highest Year of School Completed, and Color

Occupation and highest year of school completed	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied
Professional, managerial	1,459	81	147	76
12 or less	572	76	31	75
13 or more	888	84	117	76
Clerical, sales	2,969	70	215	55
11 or less	525	74	32	59
12 or more	2,445	69	183	54
Blue-collar	1,359	57	264	50
11 or less	817	56	156	50
12 or more	528	59	108	52
Domestic service	148	28	269	46
11 or less	96	32	238	49
12 or more	51	22	31	13
Nondomestic service	1,003	64	323	65
11 or less	524	66	232	66
12 or more	474	62	91	65
Farm	181	49	34	19
11 or less	101	52	31	18
12 or more	78	46	2	0
Total or average	7,120	68	1,253	56
8 or less	816	57	323	48
9-11	1,389	66	378	59
12	3,441	67	362	52
13 or more	1,457	77	186	72

those with less formal education, this gross difference undoubtedly reflects, at least in part, the occupational differences in degree of satisfaction that have already been described.

It perhaps should be noted that the overall intercolor differential in satisfaction of 12 percentage points is not attributable to differences in the occupational and educational patterns of whites and blacks. Within three of the four major occupational groups with sufficient sample cases to permit reasonably reliable estimates, a smaller proportion of blacks than whites express high satisfaction with their jobs, and this is also true within each of the years-of-schooling categories.

Occupation and marital status   Marital status seems to have little influence on job satisfaction (Table 6.8). Overall, married and nonmarried women in both color groups express practically the same degree of satisfaction with their jobs, and whatever differences exist when occupational category is controlled are not systematic.

Other job characteristics   Rate of pay appears to have an influence on degree of job satisfaction that is independent of occupation--at least as measured by major occupation group (Table 6.9). Among the white respondents, those earning less than $1.50 per hour are much less likely to express great satisfaction than those earning $1.50 or more. Indeed, there is a 10 percentage point difference among white women earning $1.50 or less compared to those earning $1.50 to $2.49. Among the blacks, the association between rate of pay and satisfaction is somewhat less pronounced, ranging from 54 percent highly satisfied among those earning $1.50 or less to 65 percent among those receiving $2.50 or more per hour. Concerning the whites, however, it is important to note that nearly half of the total (grouped) variance between pay categories in the proportion highly satisfied is "explained" by differences in occupational profiles.[5]

Both white and black women who usually work full time (i.e., 35 hours or more per week) express greater job satisfaction than those who work part time, although the relationship is somewhat stronger among the whites (Table 6.10). The difference in satisfaction among white women is greater in the professional-managerial and in the nondomestic service categories than among blue-collar workers. There are too few part-time workers in several occupation groups to permit intra-occupational comparisons among the blacks. A total of 58 percent of the black women working full time, compared to 50 percent of those working part time, report being highly satisfied. It should be noted, however, that this difference of 8 percentage points is reduced to 2 points when the black

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[5] For a general description of the standardization technique used in arriving at this conclusion, see Parnes, et al., The Pre-Retirement Years, Vol. I, Appendix E, pp. 271-73. Because they were not found in all cells, domestic service and farm workers have been excluded from the calculations.

Table 6.8 Proportion of Employed Respondents Highly Satisfied with Job, by Marital Status, Occupation, and Color

Occupation	Married		Nonmarried		Total or average	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied
	WHITES					
White-collar	3,404	74	1,024	74	4,429	74
Professional, managerial	1,113	81	347	80	1,460	81
Clerical, sales	2,292	70	677	72	2,969	70
Blue-collar	1,055	58	304	52	1,359	57
Nondomestic service	824	61	179	74	1,003	64
Total or average(a)	5,565	67	1,555	69	7,120	68
	BLACKS					
White-collar	250	64	113	62	363	63
Professional, managerial	100	74	47	82	148	76
Clerical, sales	150	57	65	49	215	55
Blue-collar	164	48	100	53	264	50
Domestic service	158	48	111	41	269	46
Nondomestic service	184	62	139	70	323	65
Total or average(b)	780	56	472	56	1,253	56

(a) Total includes domestic service and farm workers not shown separately.
(b) Total includes farm workers not shown separately.

Table 6.9 Proportion of Employed Wage and Salary Workers Highly Satisfied with Current Job, by Hourly Rate of Pay, Occupation, and Color

Hourly rate of pay and occupation	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied
Less than $1.50(a)	1,091	59	482	54
White-collar	375	69	42	52
Professional, managerial	61	84	6	100
Clerical, sales	314	66	36	46
Blue-collar	224	54	87	48
Nondomestic service	389	61	178	64
$1.50 - 2.49(a)	3,090	69	373	55
White-collar	1,913	73	129	56
Professional, managerial	348	82	35	88
Clerical, sales	1,565	71	94	44
Blue-collar	845	59	135	49
Nondomestic service	315	74	99	62
$2.50 or more(a)	1,694	75	189	65
White-collar	1,431	77	148	66
Professional, managerial	689	84	85	71
Clerical, sales	742	72	63	61
Blue-collar	196	55	30	54
Nondomestic service	62	75	11	70
Total or average(a)(b)	6,267	68	1,207	56
White-collar	3,977	74	347	63
Professional, managerial	1,222	82	135	78
Clerical, sales	2,755	71	212	54
Blue-collar	1,308	56	263	50
Nondomestic service	814	66	303	64

(a) Includes domestic service and farm workers, not shown separately.
(b) Includes respondents for whom hourly rate of pay was not ascertained.

Table 6.10 Proportion of Employed Wage and Salary Workers Highly Satisfied with Job, by Usual Number of Hours Worked per Week, Occupation, and Color

Occupation	Less than 35 hours		35 hours or more	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied
	WHITES			
White-collar	915	67	2,991	76
Professional, managerial	265	67	933	86
Clerical, sales	650	67	2,058	72
Nondomestic service	256	56	558	71
Total or average(a)	1,353	61	4,820	70
	BLACKS			
White-collar	45	53	294	64
Professional, managerial	15	64	117	79
Clerical, sales	30	47	177	54
Domestic service	179	46	85	48
Nondomestic service	47	68	254	63
Total or average(b)	302	50	884	58

(a) Includes blue-collar, domestic service, and farm workers, not shown separately.

(b) Includes blue-collar and farm workers, not shown separately.

distributions are standardized by occupation.[6] In other words, were there no differences in occupational composition between part-time and full-time black workers, the full-time workers would express only slightly more satisfaction than those working part time. However, this same standardization procedure does not reduce the spread in overall satisfaction among the whites. It is not possible, of course, to say much about the likely direction of influence--that is, whether hours of work per week influences degree of job satisfaction or is the result thereof.

Health The woman in good health is more likely than the woman in poor health to be highly satisfied with her job. This relationship exists whether health is measured by the more subjective query "Would you rate your health, compared with other women of about your age, as excellent, good, fair, or poor?" or whether it is measured by a reply to the more objective question "Does your health or physical condition (a) keep you from working at a job for pay? (b) limit the kind of work you can do? (c) limit the amount of work you can do?" Those women who rate their health as excellent are much more likely to be very fond of their jobs than those who rate their health fair or poor (Table 6.11). High job satisfaction is associated with a woman's estimate of her physical well-being regardless of color, and in nearly all types of occupations. It also is worth noting that, in general, the association between occupation and satisfaction is maintained when we control for the self-rating of health.

When health is measured in terms of limitations on the kind or amount of work that the respondent can do, differences in satisfaction are less pronounced and, in some cases, contrary to the relationship anticipated. The proportion of those liking their jobs very much among white women without any limiting health condition is only 9 percentage points more than the proportion of those whose health or physical condition limits the work they can do. The corresponding difference among black women is only 4 percentage points. In addition, among whites in domestic service and blue-collar jobs and among blacks in the latter category, those who report that their health limits their work are somewhat more likely to be highly satisfied with their jobs.

Attitudinal variables Among a series of attitudinal variables which we had thought might vary systematically with labor market behavior and satisfaction, attitude toward taking care of children shows a rather strong and consistent relationship to job satisfaction among married women (Table 6.12).[7] However, contrary to expectations, the relationship

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[6] All occupation groups, including blue-collar and farm workers, not shown separately, were used in the standardization procedure.

[7] Married women were asked "How do you feel about taking care of children? Do you--like it very much? like it somewhat? dislike it somewhat? dislike it very much? undecided?"

Table 6.11 Proportion of Employed Respondents Highly Satisfied with Current Job, by Occupation, Self-Rating of Health, and Color

Occupation and self-rating of health	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied
Professional, managerial	1,459	81	147	76
Excellent	916	84	58	82
Good	472	77	82	74
Fair or poor	53	68	7	43
Clerical, sales	2,969	70	215	55
Excellent	1,539	74	87	58
Good	1,139	68	98	54
Fair or poor	233	60	18	39
Blue-collar	1,359	57	264	50
Excellent	440	63	106	61
Good	648	58	126	38
Fair or poor	239	48	23	52
Domestic service	148	28	269	46
Excellent	46	12	66	33
Good	52	25	111	49
Fair or poor	37	46	83	48
Nondomestic service	1,003	64	323	65
Excellent	358	72	118	76
Good	476	61	142	59
Fair or poor	139	50	52	54
Total or average(a)	7,120	68	1,253	56
Excellent	3,365	74	444	63
Good	2,862	65	573	53
Fair or poor	739	54	191	48

(a) Includes farm workers, not shown separately.

is positive rather than negative. Those who like caring for children very much are more likely than those who like it somewhat to be highly satisfied with their jobs. Specifically, there is a 10 percentage point difference in job satisfaction among white women in the two child-care attitude categories and a 21 point spread among the black women.

Table 6.12 Proportion of Employed Married Respondents Highly Satisfied with Job, by Occupation, Attitude toward Caring for Children, and Color

Occupation and attitude toward caring for children	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied
White-collar(a)	3,404	73	250	64
Like it very much	2,529	75	185	65
Like it somewhat	607	65	46	50
Blue-collar(a)	1,055	58	164	48
Like it very much	747	62	104	53
Like it somewhat	226	54	47	41
Nondomestic service(a)	824	61	184	62
Like it very much	589	63	127	67
Like it somewhat	181	56	44	44
Total or average(a)(b)	5,565	67	780	56
Like it very much	4,087	69	550	60
Like it somewhat	1,051	59	171	39

(a) Totals include respondents who dislike caring for children.
(b) Includes domestic service and farm workers not shown separately.

On the other hand, the relationship between attitude toward the employment of mothers and degree of job satisfaction is in the expected direction among married white women, although almost completely absent in the case of married black women. Even among the whites, the differences are not as great as might have been anticipated; among those with permissive attitudes toward labor market activity by mothers, 72 percent express great satisfaction with their jobs, as compared with 64 percent of those with unfavorable attitudes.

A woman's perception of her husband's attitude toward her working bears a strong relationship to her reported satisfaction with her job (Table 6.13). Employed respondents were asked "How does your husband feel about your working--does he like it very much, like it somewhat, not care either way, dislike it somewhat, or dislike it very much?" Among white women, three-fourths of those whose husbands' attitudes are most favorable express the highest degree of satisfaction, as compared with 55 percent of those whose husbands' attitudes are most unfavorable. Among blacks, the corresponding proportions are 64 percent and 53 percent. Nevertheless, it cannot be concluded that a husband's attitude necessarily determines his wife's psychological work satisfactions. It is equally plausible that women who obtain little direct satisfaction at work share their dissatisfaction with their husbands.

Table 6.13 Proportion of Employed Respondents Highly Satisfied with Job, by Husband's Attitude toward Respondent's Working, Attitude toward Employment of Mothers, and Color

Husband's attitude toward respondent's working and attitude toward employment of mothers	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied
Husband's attitude toward respondent's working(a)				
Like it very much	1,597	75	243	64
Like it somewhat	1,503	68	208	55
Does not care	1,367	68	178	47
Dislike it	1,056	55	145	53
Total or average	5,565	67	780	56
Attitude toward employment of mothers				
Permissive	2,110	72	523	56
Ambivalent	2,856	67	425	56
Opposed	2,125	64	302	56
Total or average	7,120	68	1,253	56

(a) Includes only married respondents.

Factor Liked Best about Current Job

Another way of approaching the question of job satisfaction is to inquire about workers' reactions to various characteristics of their jobs. Job factors or qualities may be categorized as "intrinsic," if they are inseparable from the nature of the work itself and "extrinsic," if they stem from the job environment. The literature contains many studies designed to test the controversial Herzberg thesis that intrinsic factors are primarily "motivators" which, when present, are sources of job satisfaction, but when absent do not cause dissatisfaction, and that extrinsic factors are "hygienes" which cause dissatisfaction when absent, but do not generate satisfaction when present.[8]

We asked all employed women: "What are the things you like best about your job?" The first-mentioned responses were coded and categorized as "intrinsic" or "extrinsic" factors. Among the intrinsic factors are responses indicating a general liking for the type of work, a feeling that the job is important, that it involves a pleasant variety of activity, and that it permits a degree of autonomy and responsibility. Among the factors classified as extrinsic are wages, hours, physical working conditions, the nature of supervision, and the character of interpersonal relations with fellow workers.

A substantial majority of both white and black women--nearly two-thirds of the former and almost three-fifths of the latter--mention some intrinsic quality as the factor they like best about their jobs (Table 6.14). Intrinsic qualities are most often cited by white sales workers and farm workers and by professional, technical, and managerial workers in both color groups. On the other hand, extrinsic factors are mentioned especially frequently by blue-collar workers.

Overall, there is little difference between white and black women in the kinds of factors which they cite as most satisfactory in their jobs. Black women are somewhat more likely than white women to fail to mention any aspect of their jobs that particularly pleases them (6 percent versus 2 percent). Also, although the reason is not apparent,

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[8] See, among others: Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959); Frederick Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (Cleveland: World Publishing Co., 1966); Orlando Behling, George Labovitz, and Richard Kosmo, "The Herzberg Controversy: A Critical Reappraisal," Academy of Management Journal, Vol. II (March 1968), pp. 99-108; Robert House and Lawrence Wigdor, "Herzberg's Dual-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction and Motivation: A Review of the Evidence and a Criticism," Personnel Psychology, Vol. XX (Winter 1967), pp. 369-89; and Carl A. Lindsay, E. Marks, and L. Gorlow, "The Herzberg Theory: A Critique and Reformulation," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. LI (August 1967), pp. 330-39.

Table 6.14 Factor Liked Best about Current Job of Employed Respondents, by Major Occupation Group, and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Factor liked best about current job	White-collar					Blue-collar	Domestic service	Nondomestic service	Farm	Total or average
	Professional, technical	Nonfarm managers, proprietors	Clerical	Sales	Total or average					
	WHITES									
Intrinsic	79	76	65	72	70	45	58	66	72	64
Nature of work	72	70	61	66	65	38	42	62	36	58
Other intrinsic	7	6	4	6	5	7	15	4	36	6
Extrinsic	19	21	34	27	28	49	32	32	20	33
Wages and fringes	4	6	5	2	5	14	9	5	3	6
Hours	4	2	6	9	4	5	0	7	1	5
Physical working conditions	1	1	3	1	2	4	3	2	0	2
Supervision	3	5	7	6	6	5	7	6	0	6
Co-workers	2	4	9	6	7	12	0	9	0	8
Other extrinsic	4	3	4	3	4	9	13	3	17	5
Other	2	1	1	0	1	1	4	0*	8	1
Nothing	0*	1	1	1	1	5	6	2	0	2
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,067	393	2,548	421	4,429	1,359	148	1,003	181	7,120
	BLACKS									
Intrinsic	86	90	60	67	71	47	49	61	63	58
Nature of work	79	63	54	60	64	37	35	53	30	48
Other intrinsic	7	26	5	7	7	9	14	8	33	10
Extrinsic	14	4	36	19	25	45	40	36	18	35
Wages and fringes	0	0	13	0	6	12	1	2	5	5
Hours	2	0	10	7	6	4	6	8	2	6
Physical working conditions	3	0	2	0	2	3	1	3	0	2
Supervision	4	0	6	6	5	8	26	12	0	12
Co-workers	5	0	5	0	4	12	1	5	5	5
Other extrinsic	1	4	1	7	1	6	5	5	5	4
Other	0	0	0	0	0	0*	1	1	3	0*
Nothing	0	6	4	13	4	8	10	2	17	6
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	129	19	183	32	363	264	269	323	34	1,253

* Percentage between 0.1 and 0.5.

blacks are much more likely (12 percent) than whites (6 percent) to express satisfaction with their supervisors. Most of this difference is attributable to the fact that a disproportionately large number of black domestic service workers (26 percent) mention supervision as the job factor they like best.

Factor Disliked about Current Job

In addition to inquiring about the features of their jobs that they especially liked, all employed respondents were asked: "What are the things about your job that you don't like so well?" Responses were classified as intrinsic or extrinsic on exactly the same basis as answers to the question about job factors liked best. In both color groups, a somewhat greater proportion of women dislike an extrinsic rather than an intrinsic job characteristic (Table 6.15). Nearly two-fifths of both whites and blacks, however, report nothing as dissatisfying.

A rather substantial intercolor difference in job factors disliked remains when occupation group is used as a control variable. Among white-collar workers, for example, a larger proportion of blacks (12 percent) than whites (4 percent) mention supervision as unsatisfactory. In view of the intercolor differences in rates of pay, it is hardly surprising that black women are twice as likely as white women to express dissatisfaction with wages and fringe benefits--14 percent compared to 7 percent on an overall basis. Much of this difference is located among domestic and nondomestic service workers.

Across major occupation groups there are a number of distinctions in the relative importance given to intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics as factors which women find distasteful. Managerial workers in both color groups frequently find "hours" unsatisfactory; 23 percent of the whites and 33 percent of the blacks mention this factor. The same observation may be made concerning farm workers, but the relationship is somewhat weaker. Many other variations in job factors disliked by occupational group, although perhaps important and certainly of interest, are quite irregular, and may simply reflect sampling error.

III RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN WORK ATTITUDES AND SATISFACTION

There is substantial consistency among various measures of job and work attitudes in our study, which increases our confidence in the validity of each of them. Specifically, commitment to work is related to job satisfaction in the expected way, and degree of satisfaction and factors in job satisfaction and dissatisfaction show the same relationships found in other studies, including our first report on middle-aged men.[9]

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[9] Parnes, *et al.*, *The Pre-Retirement Years*, Vol. I, pp. 230-34.

Table 6.15 Factor Liked Least about Job of Employed Respondents, by Major Occupation Group and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Factor liked least about current job	White-collar					Blue-collar	Domestic service	Nondomestic service	Farm	Total or average
	Professional, technical	Nonfarm managers, proprietors	Clerical	Sales	Total or average					
	WHITES									
Intrinsic	32	13	30	27	26	25	37	24	33	26
Nature of work	8	1	11	11	9	7	17	5	0	8
Other intrinsic	24	12	19	16	17	18	20	19	33	18
Extrinsic	37	48	29	33	33	39	16	29	41	33
Wages and fringes	7	7	7	8	7	5	3	7	12	7
Hours	12	23	6	16	10	6	13	11	17	10
Physical working conditions	2	1	4	1	3	12	0	2	10	5
Supervision	4	5	5	4	4	5	0	3	0	4
Co-workers	2	2	2	0	2	2	0	3	0	2
Other extrinsic	9	10	4	4	7	8	0	4	3	6
Other	6	7	3	8	4	2	3	6	3	4
Nothing	27	32	40	32	36	34	45	41	23	36
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,067	393	2,548	421	4,429	1,359	148	1,003	181	7,120
	BLACKS									
Intrinsic	14	7	27	7	18	22	23	19	44	21
Nature of work	2	7	11	0	6	7	9	6	0	7
Other intrinsic	12	0	16	7	12	15	14	13	44	14
Extrinsic	50	68	29	51	40	37	30	43	37	38
Wages and fringes	8	6	7	20	8	9	19	18	16	14
Hours	4	33	5	3	6	8	4	10	10	7
Physical working conditions	5	0	5	0	4	7	0	2	6	4
Supervision	16	22	8	14	12	6	0*	3	0	6
Co-workers	1	0	1	14	2	0*	0	4	0	2
Other extrinsic	16	7	4	0	8	6	7	5	5	6
Other	4	0	2	0	2	0*	3	2	0	2
Nothing	33	25	42	42	39	41	43	37	20	39
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	129	19	183	32	363	264	269	323	34	1,253

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

Commitment to Work

A priori, one would expect a positive relationship between the satisfaction a woman expresses in her job and her commitment to work. This expectation is borne out by the data. Women who are highly satisfied with their jobs are much more likely than all others to say that they would continue working even if they (and, if applicable, their husbands) were to receive enough money to live without working (Table 6.16). This relationship prevails in every type of occupation for both color groups and is much stronger than the relationship evident in the responses of middle-aged men in 1966.[10] A difference of 22 percentage points in commitment to work is evident for the white women in our sample in the two job satisfaction categories. The comparable difference among white men 45 to 59 years of age was only 6 percentage points. Furthermore, while 14 percentage points separate the black women, black men differed in commitment by only 1 percentage point. During the remaining years of the study we will be interested to ascertain whether differences in commitment to work and job satisfaction are stable and possess predictive power in accounting for labor force mobility and interfirm movement.

Motivation to Work

Although not shown here, white women who claim that liking the work is more important than good wages more frequently (67 compared to 54 percent) say that they like an intrinsic job factor best. A somewhat higher proportion of white women who prefer good wages in any job also indicate that wages and fringe benefits is the factor they like best in their current jobs. These relationships are consistent across most occupational categories. On the other hand, among black women the relationship between motivation to work and factors in job satisfaction is highly irregular. In only half of the occupational groups do those who say liking the work is more important than good wages more frequently mention intrinsic factors than their counterparts who prefer good wages. Moreover, only a fraction of a percentage point separates the two groups of blacks when it comes to expressing a liking for the wage and fringe benefit aspects of their current jobs.[11]

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[10] *Ibid*., p. 231.

[11] Although we were somewhat unsure what relationship to anticipate, we have examined motivation to work cross-classified by job factor disliked, controlling for type of occupation. The pattern for both color groups is highly irregular. Even the expectation that those who say good wages are more important than liking the work would more often dislike wages and fringe benefits is not borne out in every case. While the relationship holds for the totals, it does not hold for white farm workers or for domestic service workers in both color groups.

Table 6.16 Proportion of Employed Respondents Who Would Work If Received Enough Money to Live without Working, by Occupation, Degree of Satisfaction with Job, and Color

Occupation and degree of satisfaction	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent who would work	Total number (thousands)	Percent who would work
Professional, managerial	1,459	74	147	76
Like it very much	1,171	79	112	78
All other	280	53	35	66
Clerical, sales	2,969	60	215	62
Like it very much	2,079	64	118	72
All other	881	48	98	48
Blue-collar	1,359	45	264	59
Like it very much	770	53	132	66
All other	584	35	131	52
Domestic service	148	40	269	66
Like it very much	41	57	121	74
All other	102	33	145	58
Nondomestic service	1,003	56	323	74
Like it very much	634	61	209	77
All other	365	45	112	69
Total or average(a)	7,120	59	1,253	67
Like it very much	4,783	66	698	73
All other	2,301	44	549	59

(a) Total includes farm workers not shown separately.

Job Satisfaction

Respondents who are highly satisfied with their jobs are more likely than those who are not to choose an intrinsic factor as the one they like best (Table 6.17). Intrinsic factors are cited by 70 percent of white women who like their jobs very much compared to only 53 percent of all others. In the case of black women, the corresponding spread is approximately the same--18 percentage points. In every occupational group containing enough sample cases for reliable analysis a positive relationship exists between degree of satisfaction and liking an intrinsic characteristic of a job. In general, the data appear to be consistent with Herzberg's thesis that high job satisfaction is primarily a function of favorable attitudes toward intrinsic job characteristics.[12] For the entire cohort of women those who are highly satisfied with their jobs are much less likely than others to cite any unsatisfactory job aspect (Table 6.18). Although not shown here, the same is true for every color-occupation group. For the total cohort, over half the highly satisfied blacks and nearly half the whites mention no unsatisfactory job attribute. Of those who do acknowledge a dislike for some aspect of their jobs, a greater proportion cite extrinsic than intrinsic factors, irrespective of their overall level of satisfaction.

IV JOB ATTACHMENT

Many women in their thirties and early forties have recently returned to the labor force. Some are renewing careers interrupted by childbearing and related responsibilities in the home. Others may be motivated by a desire to supplement the family income in order to improve their housing, buy a car, take a vacation, or send their children to college. Others presumably work because they must work in order to care financially for their families. Still other women, having been continuously attached to the labor market since leaving school, undoubtedly are reaching the apex of their careers. Whatever the motivation, we are very much interested in how the labor market operates for the services of women in this age group. We wish to know, for example, what characteristics of women are associated with the tendency to make job shifts of various kinds or to remain with the same employer, in the same occupation, in the same locality.

We also intend to examine the various patterns of change and stability, and to inquire whether any of them are more likely than others to be associated with successful accommodation to the labor market, as measured by improvement in occupational standing, rate of pay, avoidance of unemployment, attitudes toward job, and similar factors. For example, on the basis of future surveys of the respondents we hope to be able to say something about whether restricted mobility is related in any substantial way to apparent discrimination against women in pay and promotion opportunities.

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[12] See footnote 8, above.

Table 6.17 Proportions of Employed Respondents Liking Intrinsic or Extrinsic Factors Best in Current Job, by Occupation, Degree of Satisfaction with Job, and Color(a)

Occupation and degree of satisfaction	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Total number (thousands)	Percent intrinsic	Percent extrinsic	Total number (thousands)	Percent intrinsic	Percent extrinsic
Professional, managerial	1,459	78	20	147	86	13
Like it very much	1,171	82	17	112	89	11
All other	280	64	32	35	79	18
Clerical, sales	2,969	66	33	215	61	34
Like it very much	2,079	69	29	118	73	27
All other	881	57	40	98	47	42
Blue-collar	1,359	45	49	264	47	45
Like it very much	770	54	44	132	49	50
All other	584	33	55	131	46	39
Domestic service	148	58	32	269	49	39
Like it very much	41	64	36	121	56	40
All other	102	55	31	145	43	40
Nondomestic service	1,003	66	32	323	61	36
Like it very much	634	67	32	209	66	32
All other	366	64	32	112	49	45
Total or average(b)	7,120	64	33	1,253	58	35
Like it very much	4,783	70	29	698	66	33
All other	2,301	53	41	549	48	38

(a) Percentages total slightly less than 100 because the table excludes respondents who were unable to mention any factor as the one liked best or who mentioned a factor not clearly intrinsic or extrinsic.

(b) Total includes farm workers, not shown separately.

Table 6.18 Factor Liked Least about Job of Employed Women, by Degree of Satisfaction with Job, and Color

Factor liked least about job	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Like it very much	All other	Total or average	Like it very much	All other	Total or average
Intrinsic	22	35	26	12	33	21
Extrinsic	29	42	33	34	43	38
Other	4	4	4	1	3	2
Nothing	45	19	36	53	20	39
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,783	2,301	7,120	698	549	1,253

As a foundation for this longitudinal analysis of mobility, the present section explores the interfirm mobility propensities of women between the ages of 30 and 44 who were employed at the time of the initial survey in 1967. Our aim is to ascertain the correlates of a high degree of attachment to current employer in the face of ostensibly more rewarding job opportunities elsewhere in the same local area. In subsequent reports we shall be interested in checking the predictive power of our measure of job attachment in exploring the ways in which propensities to move interact with other characteristics of the individual and with characteristics of the labor market environment to produce actual job movement.

Conceptual Framework

The concept of job attachment used here, and the general theoretical framework within which it is analyzed, have been described at length in a previous report.[13] Although we believe that the overall conceptual framework is serviceable, we have sought to adapt it to the case of women, as indicated below. Briefly, we mean by job attachment the converse of the economist's definition of interfirm mobility, that is, the propensity of an employed individual to remain with his present employer despite the perception of ostensibly more rewarding opportunities elsewhere. Our measure of this propensity is based on the response to a hypothetical job offer: "Suppose someone in this area offered you a job in the same line of work you're in now. How much would the new job have to pay for you to be willing to take it?" Responses were open-ended and were later coded in relation to each respondent's wage rate. Thus, women are classified according to the percentage increase in wage rate which would be necessary to induce them to make an interfirm shift in the labor market area where they reside.

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[13] Parnes, *et al.*, *The Pre-Retirement Years*, Vol, I, pp. 147-53.

We conceive an individual's attachment to his present job (in the sense indicated above) to be a function of the interaction between his own characteristics, those of the job, and the characteristics of the labor market.[14] For example, the structure of economic and noneconomic rewards in a job relative to the individual's value hierarchy will influence the way he reacts to another job offering higher wages. But the evaluation made by a worker is substantially affected by the character of the labor market. Since there is usually no assurance that a particular job will be permanent, his willingness to give up the one he has is bound to be influenced by his estimate of the availability of other opportunities.

The individual's propensity to move is not, of course, the same thing as the objective probability of his leaving his current employer. The former is a purely attitudinal variable; the latter is a function not only of the worker's attitudes and labor force attachment, but of the actual opportunities for interfirm movement. These, in turn, depend upon: (1) the volume and character of job openings; (2) employers' hiring preferences, discharge and lay-off practices; and (3) the personal characteristics of the worker that determine the extent of his knowledge of alternative opportunities, his initiative and vigor in seeking them out, and his attractiveness to other employers. In other words, no matter how high a worker's propensity to move to another job (i.e., no matter how low his attachment), the probability of his actual movement is not necessarily great unless there are other jobs that he knows about and unless he is acceptable to other employers.

Correlates of Job Attachment

At one extreme, nearly 15 percent of employed women 30 to 44 years of age are willing to change employers within the local area for a wage differential of less than 10 percent above what they are currently earning (Table 6.19). In fact, most of these report a willingness to change jobs for a wage equal to or even lower than their current one. At the other extreme, nearly two in five said they would not change jobs for any conceivable wage rate increase. In this regard, our sample of women contains a somewhat smaller proportion of both weakly attached (would move for less than 10 percent) and strongly attached (would not move for any increase) individuals than our sample of older men.[15]

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[14] In the case of women, in addition to the illustrative variables in these three categories discussed in our earlier report on men 45 to 59 years of age, we would add (1) number and age of children; (2) child-care arrangements; (3) whether a job is full time or part time; (4) transportation arrangements, and similar variables particularly important to working women.

Table 6.19 Attachment to Current Job as Measured by Reaction of Employed Respondents to Hypothetical Job Offer in Local Area, by Color

(Percentage distribution)

Reaction to hypothetical job offer	WHITES	BLACKS
Yes, for same or lower wage	9	10
Yes, for increase of less than 10 percent	6	4
Yes, for increase of 10-50 percent	28	39
Yes, for increase of more than 50 percent	12	17
No, not for any increase	39	25
Don't know	6	4
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	7,120	1,253

We do not propose to interpret any of these responses literally. It is not necessary to debate, for example, whether the women who say they would not move to another employer for any conceivable wage increase really mean that, or whether their responses simply reveal limited imaginations. Our only purpose is to categorize individuals according to their relative degree of attachment to their present employers or, what amounts to the same thing, according to their propensity to move. Thus, the only assumption is that individuals who say that they would move to another employer for a small (or no) wage increase are less highly attached to their current jobs than those who would require a larger increase. The highest degree of attachment is attributed to those who say they would not take another job at any wage. In the analysis that follows, we measure the relative attachment of any given group of workers by the proportion of these very highly attached individuals it contains.

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[15] Parnes, et al., The Pre-Retirement Years, Vol. I, p. 154. Out-of-school young men 16 to 24 years of age displayed substantially less attachment than either group; see Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, p. 151.

Selected personal characteristics Married women in both color groups are more strongly attached to their present jobs than either single women or those who are divorced, widowed, or separated (Table 6.20). It may be that married women experience less financial pressure than other women and that this accounts for the difference in attachment. Consistent with the differences by marital status are those by whether the woman is head of a household. As expected, women 40 to 44 years of age are more highly attached to their jobs than women 30 to 34, although among the whites the positive relationship between attachment and age is not uniform; a higher proportion of those 35 to 39 (41 percent) than those 40 to 44 (38 percent) are strongly attached.

Table 6.20 Proportion of Employed Respondents Highly Attached to Current Job, by Selected Personal Characteristics and Color

Selected personal characteristic	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached
Marital status				
Never married	639	31	92	18
Married	5,565	42	780	26
All other	917	28	380	23
Total or average	7,120	39	1,253	25
Household status				
Head of household	1,061	30	343	23
All other	6,023	40	905	26
Total or average	7,120	39	1,253	25
Age				
30-34 years	2,022	36	379	21
35-39 years	2,353	41	442	24
40-44 years	2,746	38	431	29
Total or average	7,120	39	1,253	25

Selected job characteristics Although we anticipate the possibility of some rather subtle interactions among personal, job, and labor market characteristics, these will not be explored until we are able to analyze the data in a more refined multivariate framework. Nevertheless, it is apparent that differences in attachment exist by occupation, class of worker, whether the respondent usually works full time or part time, and by the length of time it takes to get to work (Table 6.21). Moreover, intercolor differences are evident in nearly every case: that is, the overall difference in attachment between the two groups is not attributable to differences in their distribution among various job categories. On the other hand, we are unsure to what extent differences in attachment reflect something about occupational patterns per se as opposed to variation in class of worker or other factors, such as embodied "specific" training. It is rather clear that self-employed and unpaid family workers are more highly attached than wage and salary workers. It is likely, in our judgment, that class of worker differences exercise a strong independent influence on attachment. Farm, managerial, and professional workers in both color groups are more highly attached than average. This may be attributable, at least in part, to a concentration of self-employed and unpaid family workers in these occupation groups.

Among the employed white women, there is a strong and consistent inverse relationship between the time required to get to work and degree of job attachment (Table 6.21). Of those who spend less than 10 minutes in travel to work the proportion who are highly attached is almost half (48 percent). This fraction declines monotonically to about a fifth (22 percent) of those whose travel time is 45 minutes or more. Among blacks, the same relationship would prevail, although somewhat less systematically, were it not for the higher-than-average degree of attachment among those who spend 45 minutes or more getting to work. While we have not yet been able to explore thoroughly the reason for this intercolor difference, we suspect that the explanation lies in the disproportionately large number of domestic servants in the group of black women reporting the longest commuting time. Domestic servants have an above-average proportion who report that they would not change jobs for any conceivable wage increase. The reason, perhaps, is that domestics who work by the day or by the hour for a number of different households during a week have difficulty conceiving what is meant by being offered "a job in the same line of work" at a different rate of pay. The question on which the measure of attachment is based is not really appropriate in such cases.

The interpretation of the inverse relation between commuting time and degree of job attachment appears to be perfectly straightforward. It is hardly surprising that women are especially reluctant to give up conveniently located jobs. The higher attachment of those in part-time jobs than of those who work full time is part of the same pattern. (Table 6.21). For one thing, part-time jobs are likely to be located closer to home. But even when not, the convenience of the work schedule would be expected to produce effects on job attachment analogous to those produced by convenience of location.

Table 6.21 Proportion of Employed Respondents Highly Attached to Current Job, by Selected Characteristics and Color

Selected characteristic	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached
Major occupation group				
White-collar	4,429	39	363	25
Professional, technical	1,067	46	129	27
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	393	46	19	45
Clerical	2,548	35	183	24
Sales	421	39	32	15
Blue-collar	1,359	28	264	19
Domestic service	148	55	269	29
Nondomestic service	1,003	44	323	25
Farm	181	86	34	39
Total or average	7,120	39	1,253	25
Class of worker				
Wage and salary	6,316	34	1,208	23
Government	1,282	39	315	27
Private	5,034	32	893	22
Self-employed	472	89	39	81
Unpaid family worker	332	98	5	78
Total or average	7,120	39	1,253	25
Hours worked in survey week (a)				
Less than 35	2,548	44	440	28
35 or more	3,938	34	711	24
Total or average	6,487	38	1,151	25
Transportation time to work				
Less than 10 minutes	2,264	48	139	31
10-19 minutes	2,476	37	365	19
20-29 minutes	1,078	31	241	22
30-44 minutes	899	28	277	16
45 minutes or more	342	22	218	26
Total or average	7,120	39	1,253	25

(a) Includes only those respondents at work in the survey week.

Length of service For the labor force as a whole, there is considerable evidence that the probability of a voluntary job change declines substantially as length of service increases. This is so, in part, because equities in jobs increase with increasing length of service (e.g., lower susceptibility to lay-off and more liberal fringe benefits). Moreover, social psychological bonds are likely to become stronger with the passage of time. Among the group of workers under consideration here, however, there is relatively limited variation in job tenure, particularly among whites. In addition, never-married women are over-represented among those with long tenure; and, as noted earlier, they are characterized by lower-than-average attachment. Whether for these or other reasons, there is no systematic simple relationship between attachment and length of service (Table 6.22). In fact, women at both ends of the tenure spectrum (i.e., under one year, and 10 years or more) are more highly attached than women with intermediate periods of service. A later multivariate analysis, controlling for such factors as marital status, occupational category, and number of hours worked will shed further light on this question.

Degree of satisfaction The level of satisfaction that a woman expresses in her job is not the same thing as the degree to which she is attached to it, in the sense in which that term is being used here. The characteristics of the worker, the work situation, and the labor market can combine to produce a level of attachment different from the level of satisfaction. For example, a security-conscious worker may be reluctant to quit a job in which she has long seniority despite dissatisfaction with that job on other grounds, while an equally dissatisfied worker who is more inclined to take risks may have less reservation about leaving. Nevertheless, a positive relationship between the two variables is to be expected, and, in fact, such a relationship has been found in our earlier analyses of both men 45 to 59 years of age and of male youth 14 to 24 years old.[16]

As Table 6.22 suggests, women who like their jobs very much are considerably more likely to be highly attached than those who express lesser degrees of satisfaction--42 percent compared to 31 percent in the case of the whites and 33 percent compared to 15 percent among the blacks. Furthermore, variation in the expected direction between attachment and degree of satisfaction exists in every color and length of service category.

Reinforcing the view that job satisfaction may have some predictive validity with respect to interfirm shifts, those who plan to continue working in their current jobs for a relatively short period of time are

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[16] Parnes, et al., The Pre-Retirement Years, Vol. I. p. 159; Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, p. 156.

Table 6.22 Proportion of Employed Respondents Highly Attached to Current Job, by Length of Service, Degree of Satisfaction with Job, and Color

Length of service and attitude toward present job	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached
Less than 1 year[(a)]	1,039	43	198	27
Highly satisfied	680	47	106	28
All other	346	34	90	26
1-2 years[(a)]	2,396	34	375	25
Highly satisfied	1,547	38	220	32
All other	835	28	155	14
3-4 years[(a)]	939	41	146	16
Highly satisfied	667	44	73	30
All other	272	32	70	2
5-9 years[(a)]	1,343	33	260	23
Highly satisfied	908	36	143	37
all other	436	27	117	5
10 years or more[(a)]	1,385	47	259	28
Highly satisfied	967	50	149	34
All other	412	40	109	20
Total or average[(a)]	7,120	39	1,253	25
Highly satisfied	4,783	42	698	33
All other	2,301	31	549	15

(a) Includes a few respondents for whom attitude toward job was not ascertained.

less likely to be highly satisfied in their work (Table 6.23).[17] Only one-third of employed white women who anticipate staying with their present jobs for less than one year are highly satisfied compared to over three-fourths of those who say "As long as I can." Among the blacks, a lack of great satisfaction is evident among women who plan to leave their jobs in less than five years. Among both color groups, the rather large numbers of women who responded "Don't know" are also less satisfied than average.

Table 6.23 Proportion of Employed Respondents Highly Satisfied with Job, by Length of Time Will Continue at Present Job, and Color

Length of time will continue at present job	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly satisfied
Less than 1 year	581	34	105	30
1-4 years	620	60	67	32
5 years or longer	779	63	69	76
"As long as I can"	3,725	79	790	66
Don't know	1,387	58	217	33
Total or average	7,120	68	1,253	56

V SUMMARY

The commitment to work among employed women 30 to 44 years of age is substantial. Three-fifths of employed white women and two-thirds of employed black women report that they would continue to work even if they were to receive enough money to live comfortably without working. Work commitment, as thus measured, tends to be stronger among nonmarried than married women, among those without preschool-age children, among those in professional, technical, and managerial occupations than in other occupational categories, and among those with permissive attitudes toward the employment of women with children.

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[17] Employed women were asked: "How long do you think you will continue to work at your present job?"

Not only do most working women in the age group under consideration have positive attitudes toward work, but substantial majorities report that they like their specific jobs very much. Over two-thirds of employed white women and nearly three-fifths of employed black women are in this highly-satisfied category and fewer than one in ten express any degree of dissatisfaction. In general, job satisfaction is positively associated with occupational level and, within major occupation groups, with hourly rate of pay. It also appears to be greater among full-time than among part-time workers, particularly in the case of white women. Women who report good health are more likely than those with health problems to have highly favorable attitudes toward their jobs. There do not appear to be any differences in this respect, however, between married and nonmarried women.

Degree of job satisfaction appears to be related systematically to several other attitudinal variables. For example, married respondents with permissive attitudes toward women's labor market activity are somewhat more likely to be highly satisfied with their jobs than those who are ambivalent or opposed. A considerably stronger relationship exists between the woman's job satisfaction and her perception of her husband's attitude toward her working. On the other hand, we have not found the anticipated inverse relationship between job satisfaction and attitude toward keeping house. Moreover, contrary to expectations, there appears to be a positive relationship between liking child-care activities and job satisfaction.

When asked what aspects of their jobs they particularly like, most women (almost two-thirds of the whites and nearly three-fifths of the blacks) cite some intrinsic quality (e.g., the nature of the work, level of responsibility, etc.) rather than extrinsic factors (e.g., wages, working conditions, etc.). Nevertheless, as would be expected, there is substantial variation in this respect among women in different types of work. For example, among whites, intrinsic factors are cited by four-fifths of the professional workers, two-thirds of clerical workers, and somewhat less than half of blue-collar workers. The pattern among black women is comparable, although the range of variation is even greater, since almost nine-tenths of the professional workers cite intrinsic factors.

In responding to a question about characteristics of their jobs they do not like, a substantial minority of the women (36 percent of the whites and 39 percent of the blacks) are unable or unwilling to mention any factor. However, among those who do respond, extrinsic factors are mentioned more frequently than intrinsic factors in virtually all occupation groups, this tendency being especially pronounced among blacks.

Another dimension of the reaction of workers to their jobs is their degree of "attachment," that is, their disposition to remain with their present employer despite the perception of higher paying jobs in the same line of work elsewhere in the community. Nearly 15 percent of employed women 30 to 44 years of age report a willingness to change employers within the local area for a wage differential no greater than 10 percent above what they are currently earning. At the other extreme, however, two-fifths of the white and one-fourth of the black women say they would not change jobs for any conceivable wage increase. According to this measure, degree of attachment is greater among married than nonmarried women, among part-time than full-time workers, and among those who spend relatively little time travelling to work. Until a multivariate analysis can be made, it is not clear to what extent these several correlates of high attachment are independent of one another. Married women are more likely, of course, than nonmarried women to work part time; and they also spend less time, on average, getting to and from work. The data are consistent with the hypothesis that married women with jobs that are convenient in terms of their location, their work schedule, or both, are particularly reluctant to leave them for others which might pay more but lack these special characteristics.

Degree of attachment varies among occupational categories being particularly strong among the women employed in professional-technical, managerial, domestic service, and farm occupations. However, despite the strong theoretical reasons for expecting a positive relationship between length of service in current job and degree of attachment to it, no such simple association between the two variables has been found. It may very well be that an underlying net relationship is being concealed by the influence of such other variables as marital status and whether employment is part time or full time. We shall wish to pursue this matter further through multivariate analysis.

Although job satisfaction and job attachment are conceptually distinct, the hypothesized positive relationship between them is amply substantiated by the data. Among white women highly satisfied with their jobs the proportion with high attachment is 11 percentage points greater than among those expressing lesser degrees of satisfaction. The relationship is even more pronounced than in the case of the blacks. As the longitudinal analysis develops, we shall want to see to what extent this measure of attachment interacts with other characteristics of the individual worker and characteristics of the labor market in accounting for actual patterns of job movement.

White women and black women differ with respect to most of the attitudinal measures discussed in this chapter. As compared with whites, black women tend to register higher commitment to work, especially if they are in blue-collar jobs. This, of course, is consistent with the higher labor force participation rates of black women that appear to persist even when other family income is controlled. The proportion of black women who believe that extrinsic job attributes ("good wages") are more important than intrinsic attributes ("liking the work") is double that of white women (40 percent versus 21 percent). Also, the black women are less likely than white to express high satisfaction with their jobs (56 versus 68 percent) and less likely to register high job attachment (25 versus 39 percent).

With the data now available to us, it is not possible to say with any assurance to what extent these attitudinal differences reflect intercolor differences in the actual work situation and to what extent they reflect differences in values. While it is true that most of the attitudinal differences tend to remain even within occupational categories, the latter are very broad and probably conceal substantial variation in specific occupational assignment. Nevertheless, the data are at least consistent with the hypothesis that, other things being equal, black women are more responsive to wage differentials than white women. This is a hypothesis that perhaps can be subjected to more rigorous testing as the study unfolds.

CHAPTER SEVEN*

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Several facets of the labor market experiences of adult women have been analyzed in earlier chapters of this volume. The analysis thus far, however, is but a prologue to an intensive longitudinal study of the labor market and related behavior of women 30 to 44 years of age. Many of these women are at a point in life where the relative emphasis given to "dual careers" as homemakers and labor force members is undergoing substantial change. The total five-year study is designed to answer a number of questions related to the transition between home and work. We wish to understand, for example, how factors such as education and previous work experience, the presence and ages of children at home, the health of respondents and of other family members, family income, access to child-care services, and attitudes toward the proper role of women influence various dimensions of labor market behavior: the extent and timing of labor force participation, the kinds of jobs women accept, their earnings and hours of work, their job satisfaction, and the stability of their employment.

Thus far, we have examined labor force participation, prospective labor force and interfirm mobility, several characteristics of current employment (occupational assignments, costs of transportation to and from work, child-care arrangements and extent of part-time employment), lifetime occupational and geographic mobility, and various attitudes toward child care, homemaking, and work outside the home. Explanation of variation in all these aspects of behavior has been sought in terms of a large number of demographic, economic, and social-psychological variables. Numerous characteristics appear to have explanatory and predictive value, and several are subject to influence through public and private policy.

In this final chapter, we make no attempt to summarize our findings, since the reader interested in such a summary can consult the concluding section of each chapter. Rather, our purpose is to stand back from the data, as it were, and to emphasize those aspects of the study that seem to us to contribute most to an understanding of the labor market behavior of the women under consideration and to the development of guidelines for effective human resource policy.

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* This chapter was written by John R. Shea.

The particular age cohort of women being studied is of great interest because of the remarkable increase over the past three decades in the employment of adult women, particularly those married with children at home.[1] The consequences of this behavior in terms of family income, health, the rearing of children, and the psychological well-being of women themselves deserve far more intensive examination than has hitherto been given to such matters. It is important to recognize, for instance, that only five of every six women between the ages of 30 and 44 are married and living with their husbands. Two-thirds of the remainder are widowed, divorced, or separated; and of the entire nonmarried[2] group well over half (56 percent) have children at home under 18 years of age. Thus, for large numbers of women an opportunity for productive employment involves far more than self-fulfillment or supplementary family income, important as these may be. In many instances, such income is critical to a decent life and to escape from poverty and dependency.

Approximately three-fifths of the women interviewed in 1967 were in the labor force at that time, of whom a small fraction (4 percent) were unemployed. Three-fifths of the employed were in white-collar occupations, one-fifth in blue-collar work, and with the exception of 1 percent working on farms, the remainder had jobs in the service category. Over one-fifth (22 percent) of the women employed in wage and salary jobs reported usually working part time. Nine out of ten cited noneconomic reasons for working less than 35 hours a week, and it would appear that hours of work, distance traveled to place of employment, child-care arrangements and, at least in some cases, choice of occupation are interrelated in rather complex ways.

Married women between the ages of 30 and 44, especially when they work full time, make considerable contributions to the incomes of their families. Considering only married wage and salary workers, white women usually employed full time contributed, on average, roughly a third of the total income of their families in 1966 (median earnings were $3,606, while median family income was $11,006). Black women working full time, although they earned somewhat less than white women, accounted for a slightly larger proportion of the income of their families (median earnings and family income of $2,906 and $8,267, respectively).

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[1] "In 1940 only 9 percent of all mothers with children under 18 years of age worked outside the home, but by 1967 this proportion had increased to 38 percent. The corresponding rise in the proportion of all women in the labor force was much smaller--from 28 percent in 1940 to 41 percent in 1967." U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1969 Handbook on Women Workers, pp. 40-41.

[2] Unless otherwise noted, the term "married" refers to respondents who are married with husband present. "Nonmarried" refers to respondents who are never married, divorced, separated, widowed, and married, husband absent.

The reasons for variation in pay and earnings among women are very complex. One factor is undoubtedly the extent of upward occupational mobility. For example, never-married women obtained more education than their ever-married counterparts and, in general, began their careers in jobs calling for higher education and yielding higher rates of pay. Together with a better start, such women experienced net upward mobility from first to current (or last) job. Regrettably, however, the same cannot be said of ever-married women, a much larger group. Not only did such women start lower on the occupational ladder, but proportionately more experienced downward than upward mobility. The extent to which this phenomenon is related to the structure of part-time job opportunities, to the deterioration of employment skills through nonuse, or to other factors will be explored in detail at some later time.

Despite rather poor earnings and career progression, the vast majority (95 percent) of employed women in the sample report favorable attitudes toward their jobs. Indeed, three of every five indicate that they would work even if they (and their husbands) had enough money to live comfortably without working. Three-fourths say that "liking the work" is a more important characteristic of any job than "good wages," and over half say they would not change jobs in the same line of work at any conceivable wage or for anything less than a 50 percent increase in pay.

While there are many favorable aspects of the home and work experiences of adult women, there are several areas of concern in addition to those already mentioned. First, over one-fifth of white women and a third of the black married prior to age 18, and these proportions are even higher if attention is restricted to younger married women, 30 to 34 years old. In many cases, early marriage was accompanied by withdrawal from school, and no more than casual kinds of early employment experiences. Second, nearly one-fifth of the women report health and physical conditions which either prevent or limit their ability to work. Third, one in eight married women indicate that their husbands suffer health limitations, and one in eight point to health problems of yet other family members. Fourth, with regard to education, one-third of the whites and just over half of the blacks completed less than four years of high school. Indeed, one in seven either did not attend school or left by the end of the eighth grade. Finally, while the overall rate of unemployment was low at the time of the survey, a rather large proportion (nearly 15 percent) of women with young children experienced some unemployment during 1966.

I SOURCES OF VARIATION IN LABOR MARKET BEHAVIOR

The generalizations of the preceding paragraphs are very gross, indeed. Nevertheless, they serve to indicate the substantial variation that exists in almost every dimension of the labor market behavior of adult women. Much of the analysis in this study has represented a search for the sources of this variation, and the factors that appear to be important may now be reviewed briefly.

Marital and Family Status

The circumstances facing a woman at home--whether she is married and the number and ages of her children--are significantly related to several important aspects of labor market behavior. For example, within the range from 30 to 44, age itself appears to make no difference whatsoever in labor force participation. The overall variation which exists within this broad age category is largely a function of marital status and ages of children. Mothers of preschool youngsters are much less likely than others to be in the labor force. Married women are much more likely than their nonmarried counterparts to say that they would stay home if they were to lose their jobs. At the same time, perhaps because of the "tailor-made" nature of many existing positions, a higher proportion of married than nonmarried women are strongly attached to their present employers.

As already mentioned, nonmarried women completed more years of education, on the average, than their married counterparts and, unlike the latter, they tended to experience upward occupational movement from first job to current job. Both marital status and the presence of children at home also influence hours worked per week. Married women, and especially those with children, frequently work part time, and of course, child-care arrangements are often necessary whether a woman works full time or part time.

Education and Health

The present study documents once again the positive relationship between educational attainment, on the one hand, and labor force participation and occupational assignment, on the other. While little was said in Chapter 3 about the association between participation and years of school completed, tables in the appendix to that chapter show such relationships. Of course, the influence of education shows up very strongly when it comes to occupation. Most of the employed college graduates were in professional-technical occupations at the time of the survey. At the opposite extreme, women with less than 12 years of education were predominantly located in service, farm, and blue-collar jobs.

Color

Within the ages covered by this study, there is scarcely a dimension of labor market behavior with respect to which black women and white women do not differ. Black women have higher labor force participation rates and higher unemployment rates than white women. Blacks started their careers in jobs of lower socioeconomic status than those of whites. With the exception of college graduates in professional fields traditionally open to black women, such as teaching, they remain concentrated in the less desirable jobs.

In addition to labor market behavior, there are many other differences in family life, educational attainment, attitudes, and other characteristics. Nearly a third of ever-married black women had their first child prior to reaching age 18, and one-quarter have had six or more children. Comparable percentages of whites were 9 percent in each instance. While 86 percent of the white women were married and living with their husbands at the time of the survey, the same was true of only 67 percent of the black women.[3] Far fewer blacks than whites completed either high school or grade school.

Not surprisingly, the attitudes of blacks toward work in general and toward their jobs in particular are also different from those of whites. In general, black women in this age group express more favorable views toward the idea of mothers working. If they were to lose their jobs, they would be more inclined to look for others. Black women are also more likely than white women to be interested in paid employment in the absence of financial necessity and to value good wages above the intrinsic qualities of the job. They are less likely, on the other hand, to be satisfied with their current jobs, and they are more likely than whites to evidence interest in taking another job at a higher wage rate.

One of the questions at which our analysis has been directed is whether differences in labor market behavior between blacks and whites simply reflect differences in educational attainment, marital and family status, and similar factors, or whether they remain even when such factors are controlled statistically. The large number of interrelated variables presents a confident answer to this question at the present time, yet at least a few intercolor differences either disappear or are substantially reduced when occupation is controlled. This is true, for example, of a number of attitudinal responses concerning work.

Nevertheless, there are several differences between white women and black women in labor market behavior that remain pronounced despite controls for years of school completed and marital and family status. Among these are occupational assignment, labor force participation, and hourly wage rate. For example, despite equivalent years of schooling; black women who fail to complete college enter the labor force in occupations which are much different than those obtained by white women. Specifically, proportionately fewer enter clerical and sales positions, and proportionately more take jobs in domestic and nondomestic service. Among the logically conceivable explanations for this result are the following possibilities: (1) that the education of blacks is qualitatively inferior to that of whites; (2) that other "cultural" differences between whites and blacks have an effect on job performance or on the kinds of jobs sought; (3) that the structure of job opportunities is different in geographic areas where blacks are concentrated; and (4) that black women are discriminated against in the labor market. In a sense, three of the four explanations involve discrimination, albeit with different time perspectives. Qualitatively inferior education for blacks implies discrimination in educational opportunities. Whatever "cultural" differences exist apart from differences in educational backgrounds undoubtedly reflect, in large part, historic differentials whose origins can be traced to the institution of slavery. In any case, the present study provides only partial evidence bearing on the four possible explanations. For example, far fewer black than white women took shorthand in high school, a skill importantly associated with entry to white-collar occupations. However, even when black high school graduates had both typing and shorthand, they did no better than white graduates with neither skill in gaining access to clerical and sales jobs. The attitudinal differences which remain when occupation and marital status are controlled caution against ruling out the importance of cultural differences. Differential employment patterns by size of community are certainly suggestive of regional variation in employment opportunities, although this factor remains to be examined. Finally, there is abundant evidence that discriminatory racial attitudes and practices are importantly related to career chances.

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[3] There is no evidence of disintegration of family structure over time, since only 78 percent of the white respondents and 55 percent of the black reported living with both parents at age 15. Indeed, there is some support in these figures for an opposite conclusion.

Attitudes toward Home and Work

The role of values and attitudes in conditioning labor market behavior largely remains to be explored in the follow-up surveys. Nevertheless, data generated by the first round of interviews provide grounds for believing that a number of the attitudes that have been measured will help to explain and predict behavior. One basis for this belief is the high degree of consistency among attitudes. Another is the existence of relationships between attitudes and other characteristics that are known to be related to behavior. For example, response to a hypothetical job loss is associated with marital and family status, which is known to be an important determinant of labor force participation. Despite this association, however, there is variation within marital and family status categories in what employed women say they would do if they lost their jobs. The real test lies in seeing whether, among those in comparable family circumstances, the measure discriminates between those who stay in the labor force and those who leave.

It is also important to note the absence of strong relationships between our measure of a woman's attitude toward the propriety of mothers with young school-age children working and several explanatory variables known to be systematically related to labor force participation. This lack of regularity leads us to believe that the responses are not simply rationalizations for current behavior. For example, regardless of the presence or ages of children in their own families, nearly

22 percent of all married women in the sample held "permissive" attitudes toward working mothers. At the same time, there were dramatic differences in participation rates depending on presence and ages of children. Careful examination of the data reveals an important interaction between family status and the attitudinal measure. Women who in fact have young children and also hold permissive attitudes are much more likely to be in the labor force than similarly situated women ambivalent or opposed. While there is some relationship between attitude toward working mothers and the participation of married women with no children, the association is slight. We intend to investigate whether these attitudes are stable over time or, if not stable, whether they vary with labor market experiences. We know now that attitude toward the propriety of working mothers is associated with education. This leads us to believe tentatively that we may have tapped an important attitude toward the role of women which is strongly influenced by early experiences in the home, school, and community. If this is a correct interpretation--and we may be able to answer this question on the basis of an identical set of attitudinal questions in a parallel survey of young women 14 to 24 years old--there are clear educational policy implications, particularly if the labor market activities of women are on balance, positively related to individual, family, and social welfare.

II A FORWARD LOOK

At numerous places in previous chapters we have referred to important questions for longitudinal analysis which we expect to pursue when data from succeeding surveys become available. It seems fitting to conclude this volume by presenting a somewhat more systematic, though not exhaustive, preview of the kinds of analyses we intend to make and the major types of hypotheses we intend to test.

To begin with, collection of detailed work histories over a five-year period will permit us to examine over a longer period of time some of the relationships reported here on the basis of data for a single year. An advantage in doing so is that we would expect greater variation in some of the variables over a number of years. For example, little was said in Chapter 3 about the character of unemployment experienced by women in the sample, because there was reasonably little unemployment at the time of the survey. Over the life of the study, a much larger proportion of the women undoubtedly will experience some unemployment. These additional observations will increase the statistical reliability of our analysis of, say, the relationship between unemployment and entry or withdrawal from the labor force.

Second, after each survey we expect to describe and to analyze changes in labor force and employment status and movement between jobs. Merely quantifying the extent of gross movement in and out of the labor force, between employment and unemployment, and among different kinds of jobs will be instructive, since there is little knowledge about the magnitude of several types of change. Of greater interest, however, will be the exploration of the "causes" and "consequences" of such changes. For example, in what respects are those who enter the labor force during the course of the year different from those who do not? Are women who hold high educational aspirations for their children more likely than others to increase the intensity of their labor force participation--e.g., move from part-time to full-time jobs--as their children approach college age? To what extent are changes in personal health and in the health condition of other family members reflected in movement into or out of the labor force? Are the consistently high labor force participation rates of black women systematically related to employment difficulties experienced by many of their husbands? Are women who remain in one geographical area, compared to those who move, more likely to make some progress in moving up career ladders --a hypothesis suggested by the data from the initial survey. Are those who change employers more likely than nonchangers to feel increased satisfaction in their work? Are they more or less likely to earn more money? For any given wage rate change, is there a tendency toward offsetting variation in child-care and transportation expenses? These are only illustrative of the rich mine of data to be exploited. Our plan of analysis calls for ascertaining the correlates of most of the dimensions of labor mobility: movement into and out of the labor force; from unemployment to employment and vice versa; between occupations (with or without an accompanying change of employer); between employers (with or without an accompanying change of occupations); and between different labor market areas.

A third area of interest, closely related to the second, involves a test of the predictive value of several of the attitudinal measures and an assessment of their stability over time. Are a woman's plans regarding her activities five years from now--working, staying home, or doing something else--predictive of future labor force participation? Do responses concerning what would be done were she to lose her job discriminate between those who, in fact, would leave instead of stay in the labor force? Would the predictive efficiency of these measures be improved by combining them into an index with other measures, such as degree of job satisfaction, motivation to work, perception of their husbands' attitudes toward their working, and commitment to the work role? Are the attitudes of women toward the propriety of working mothers strong and stable, or are these feckless attitudes subject to alteration as the result of labor market experiences and the availability of child-care services? Answers to these questions have significance both from the standpoint of interpreting labor market behavior and from a methodological point of view, since they permit an assessment of the utility of eliciting responses to attitudinal questions.

Fourth, we shall be interested in the extent to which both married and nonmarried women with or without children accommodate to various labor market opportunities. Given existing attitudes on the part of society toward the proper roles of women (e.g., work outside the home, homemaking, volunteer community service), there is abundant room--at least in comparison to men--for variation in degree of participation in formal labor market activities. We wish to know to what extent part-time employment, for example, is used as a way of readjusting to the labor force following a period out of the labor force. If large numbers of women with highly developed skills seek part-time jobs which fail to utilize those skills simply because routine part-time work is more frequently available, there may be a powerful argument in favor of vigorous public and private policy concerning day-care services and the redesign of job opportunities.

A fifth area of inquiry concerns career occupational mobility and rates of pay. Commitment to "equal pay for equal work" and concern that career possibilities be open to all, regardless of sex, demands that we carefully examine the employment experiences of women to determine the probable magnitude and location of discrimination in employment.

Finally, we expect to evaluate the effects of certain changes in the environment within which families live and work. What can be done in this connection obviously will depend on how much variation occurs in the "environment" over the five-year period. The influence of recent fluctuation in the level of economic activity on the volume and pattern of mobility and on degree of attachment to an employer and to the labor force may be explored. Should there be major innovations in human resource and welfare policy, it may be possible to test their effects on the age group of women under consideration. For example, depending on the will of the Congress, we may inquire whether reform in the public welfare system has any perceptible effect on the labor force participation of women in poverty families.

At the conclusion of the five years of study, there will have been assembled for this age group of women a larger body of data on employment experiences and attitudes toward work and home than has ever been accumulated for any national sample of individuals. At the same time, similar work is going forward on longitudinal studies of three other important segments of the population: men 45 to 59 years of age, young men 14 to 24, and young women in this same age group. The opportunities for analysis within each of these studies, to say nothing of the comparisons among them, are almost limitless. The comparison of younger and older women, for example, should help determine whether changes in race relations over the past decade and a half are reflected in improvements in educational and employment opportunities for black women relative to white women. The comparison of younger and older women will also enable us to explore the probable direction of influence between attitudes toward work and actual work experience. Hopefully, the results of the analyses will be new insights into labor market processes and problems that will not only improve our understanding of labor markets but also provide some basis for private and public policies that will lead to improvements in the quality of life as well as to more effective and equitable development and utilization of the nation's human resources.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

GLOSSARY

AGE

Age of respondent as of last birthday prior to April 1, 1967.

AGES OF CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME

Respondents were divided into three categories according to the presence (or absence) of children in the home at the time of the survey:

No Children under 18

Includes all women with no children under the age of 18 living at home, irrespective of the possible presence of older children or the existence of children not residing with the respondent.

Children 6 to 17, None Younger

Includes all women with one or more children between 6 and 17 years of age but no younger children living at home, irrespective of the possible presence of older children or the existence of children not residing with the respondent.

Children under Six

Includes all women with one or more children under six years of age living at home, irrespective of the possible presence of older children or the existence of children not residing with the respondent.

ATTACHMENT TO CURRENT JOB

Relative increase in rate of pay for which an employed respondent would be willing to accept a hypothetical offer of employment in the same line of work with a different employer in the same area.

ATTITUDE TOWARD JOB

A woman's report of her feelings toward her job when confronted by the following four alternatives: "like it very much," "like it fairly well," "dislike it somewhat," and "dislike it very much."

ATTITUDE TOWARD EMPLOYMENT OF MOTHERS

This attitudinal measure is based on responses to a series of three questions postulating the employment of a married woman with school-age children under specified conditions: (1) if it is absolutely necessary to make ends meet; (2) if she wants to work and her husband agrees; and (3) if she wants to work, even if her husband does not particularly like the idea. For scoring procedures, see Chapter 2, footnote 9.

AVERAGE LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE SINCE LEAVING SCHOOL

The proportion of years since the respondent left regular school during which she worked a minimum of six months.

CLASS OF WORKER

Wage and Salary Worker

A person working for a rate of pay per time-unit, commission, tips, payment in kind, or piece rates for a private employer or any government unit.

Self-employed Worker

A person working in her own unincorporated business, profession, or trade, or operating a farm for profit or fees.

Unpaid Family Worker

A person working without pay on a farm or in a business operated by a member of the household to whom she is related by blood or marriage.

COLOR

The term "black" refers to all those who are not Caucasian and is used in lieu of the more conventional "Negro and other races." For further detail, see Chapter 1, footnote 4.

COMMITMENT TO WORK

Respondent's reaction to the question of whether she would work even "if, by some chance, you (and your husband) were to get enough money to live comfortably without working."

EMPLOYED: See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

EXTRINSIC JOB FACTORS

Aspects of the job environment such as wages, hours, security, and supervision, which have no direct relation to the inherent nature of the work.

FAMILY INCOME, LESS RESPONDENT'S EARNINGS

Income from all sources (including wages and salaries, net income from business or farm, pensions, dividends, interest, rent, royalties, social insurance, and public assistance) received by any family member living in the household, minus the earned income of the respondent. Income of nonrelatives living in the household is not included.

FAMILY NET ASSETS

The market value of family assets--real and financial--minus the value of debts outstanding.

HEALTH, EFFECT ON ACTIVITY OF

Respondent's assessment of whether her physical or mental condition (1) keeps her from working for pay; (2) limits the kind of work she can do; (3) limits the amount of work she can do; or (4) limits the amount of housework she can do. If the answer to any of these questions is yes, the nature of the limitation is ascertained.

HEALTH, SELF-RATING OF

Respondent's assessment of her health as compared with the health of other women her age: "excellent," "good," "fair," or "poor."

HEALTH PROBLEM, DURATION OF

The length of time (in years) that the respondent has suffered from some malady which limits the kind and/or amount of work that she can perform or entirely prevents her from working.

HIGHEST YEAR OF SCHOOL COMPLETED

The highest grade finished by the respondent in "regular" school, where years of college completed are denoted 13, 14, 15, etc. "Regular" schools include graded public, private, and parochial elementary and high schools; colleges; universities; and professional schools.

HOURLY RATE OF PAY

Usual gross rate of compensation per hour on current (or last) job held by wage and salary workers. If a time unit other than an hour was reported, hourly rates were computed by first converting the reported figure into a weekly rate and then dividing by the number of hours usually worked per week on that job.

HOURS WORKED DURING SURVEY WEEK

The total number of hours worked at all jobs held by the respondent during the calendar week preceding the date of interview.

INDUSTRY

The 10 one-digit-level classes of the Bureau of the Census' functional classification of employers on the basis of nature of final product.

INTRINSIC JOB FACTORS

Aspects of the job which are inherent in the nature of the occupation or relate to job content.

JOB

A continuous period of service with a given employer.

Current or Last Job

For respondents who were employed during the survey week, the job held during the survey week. For respondents who were either unemployed or out of the labor force during the survey week, the most recent job.

First Job

For ever-married women, the longest job held between school and (first) marriage. For never-married women who have never had children, the first job after leaving school at which they worked a minimum of six months.

LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

In the Labor Force

All respondents who were either employed or unemployed during the survey week.

Employed

All respondents who during the survey week were either (1) "at work"--those who did any work for pay or profit or worked without pay for 15 or more hours on a family farm or business; or (2) "with a job but not at work"--those who did not work and were not looking for work, but had a job or business from which they were temporarily absent because of vacation, illness, industrial dispute, bad weather, or because they were taking time off for various other reasons.

Unemployed

All respondents who did not work at all during the survey week and either were looking or had looked for a job in the four-week period prior to the survey; all respondents who did not work at all during the survey week and were waiting to be recalled to a job from which they were laid off; and all respondents who did not work at all during the survey week and were waiting to report to a new job within 30 days.

Out of the Labor Force

All respondents who were neither employed nor unemployed during the survey week.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE

The proportion of the total civilian noninstitutional population or of a demographic subgroup of that population classified as "in the labor force."

LENGTH OF SERVICE IN CURRENT (LAST) JOB

The total number of years spent by the respondent in his current (or most recent) job.

MARITAL STATUS

Respondents were classified into the following categories: married, husband present; married, husband absent; divorced; separated; widowed; and never married. When the term "married" is used in this report, it includes the first of these categories. The term "nonmarried" is used to refer to all categories except married, husband present. The term "ever married" includes all categories with the exception of the never married.

MOTIVATION TO WORK

Respondents were classified by their response to a question concerning the more important thing about any job: "good wages" or "liking the work."

NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS

The number of persons who receive at least one-half of their support from the respondent (and, if married, her husband), whether or not such dependent persons reside in the household.

OCCUPATION

The major occupation groups are the one-digit classes used by the Bureau of the Census in the 1960 Census of Population. In addition, we break the service workers into two groups, domestic and nondomestic.

OUT OF THE LABOR FORCE: See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING

Program(s) taken outside the regular school system for other than social or recreational purposes. Sponsoring agents include government, unions, and business enterprises. A training course sponsored by a company must last at least two weeks to be considered a "program."

PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT

A maximum employment of 34 hours per week. The three ways in which this measure is used are as follows: (a) actual number of hours worked during the survey week at all jobs; (b) usual number of hours worked per week at all jobs in 1966; and (c) usual number of hours worked per week on current or last job.

PSU (PRIMARY SAMPLING UNIT)

One of the 235 areas of the country from which the sample for this study was drawn; usually an SMSA (standard metropolitan statistical area) or a county.

REACTION TO HYPOTHETICAL JOB OFFER

Answer of respondents out of the labor force to a question about whether they would accept a job offer in the local area.

REGULAR SCHOOL

"Regular" schools include graded public, private, and parochial elementary and high schools; colleges; universities; and professional schools.

RESIDENCE IN COUNTY OR SMSA, LENGTH OF

Number of years that the respondent has lived in the county or SMSA of present residence.

RESIDENCE AT AGE 15

Degree of urbanization of area in which the respondent lived when she was 15 years of age. Categories are: farm or ranch; rural nonfarm; town (less than 25,000); suburb of city; city (25,000-100,000); large city (more than 100,000).

SATISFACTION, DEGREE OF JOB

Respondent's report of her feelings toward her job when confronted with the following four alternatives: "like it very much," "like it fairly well," "dislike it somewhat," "dislike it very much."

SELF-EMPLOYED: See CLASS OF WORKER

SURVEY WEEK

For convenience, the term "survey week" is used to denote the calendar week preceding the date of interview. In the conventional parlance of the Bureau of the Census, it means the "reference week."

TENURE: See LENGTH OF SERVICE IN CURRENT (LAST) JOB

TOTAL FAMILY INCOME

Income from all sources (including wages and salaries, net income from business or farm, pensions, dividends, interest, rent, royalties, social insurance, and public assistance) received by any family member living in the household. Income of nonrelatives living in the household is not included.

UNEMPLOYED: See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

UNEMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCE IN 1966

Cumulative number of weeks in calendar year 1966 that the respondent reported she was not working but looking for work or on lay-off from a job.

UNEMPLOYMENT RATE

The proportion of the labor force classified as unemployed.

UNPAID FAMILY WORKER: See CLASS OF WORKER

WAGE AND SALARY WORKERS: See CLASS OF WORKER

WAGE RATE: See HOURLY RATE OF PAY

WEEKS IN THE LABOR FORCE IN 1966

Cumulative number of weeks in calendar year 1966 that the respondent reported that she either worked, looked for work, or was on lay-off from a job.

WORK EXPERIENCE

Any full- or part-time employment experienced by the respondent any time during her life after leaving school on a full-time basis.

APPENDIX B *

SAMPLING, INTERVIEWING, AND ESTIMATING PROCEDURES

The Survey of Work Experience of Women 30 to 44 Years of Age is one of four longitudinal surveys sponsored by the Manpower Administration of the U. S. Department of Labor. Taken together these surveys constitute the National Longitudinal Surveys.

The Sample Design

The National Longitudinal Surveys are based on a multi-stage probability sample located in 235 sample areas comprising 485 counties and independent cities representing every state and the District of Columbia. The 235 sample areas were selected by grouping all of the nation's counties and independent cities into about 1,900 primary sampling units (PSU's) and further forming 235 strata of one or more PSU's that are relatively homogeneous according to socioeconomic characteristics. Within each of the strata a single PSU was selected to represent the stratum. Within each PSU a probability sample of housing units was selected to represent the civilian noninstitutionalized population.

Since one of the survey requirements was to provide separate reliable statistics for Negroes and other races, households in predominantly Negro and other race enumeration districts (ED's) were selected at a rate three times that for households in predominantly white ED's. The sample was designed to provide approximately 5,000 interviews for each of the four surveys--about 1,500 Negroes and other races and 3,500 whites. When this requirement was examined in light of the expected number of persons in each age-sex-color group it was found that approximately 42,000 households would be required in order to find the requisite number of Negroes and other races in each age-sex group.

An initial sample of about 42,000 housing units was selected and a screening interview took place in March and April 1966. Of this number about 7,500 units were found to be vacant, occupied by persons whose usual residence was elsewhere, changed from residential use, or demolished. On the other hand, about 900 additional units were found which had been created within existing living space or had been changed from what was previously nonresidential space. Thus 35,360 housing units were available for interview; of these, usable information was collected for 34,662 households, a completion rate of 98.0 percent.

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* This appendix was written by Marie G. Argana, Chief, Longitudinal Surveys Branch, Demographic Surveys Division, U. S. Bureau of the Census.

Following the initial interview and screening operation, the sample was rescreened in the fall of 1966, immediately prior to the first Survey of Work Experience of Males 14 to 24. For the rescreening operation, the sample was stratified by the presence or absence of a 14 to 24-year-old male in the household. The rescreened sample was used to designate 5,393 women age 30 to 44 to be interviewed for the Survey of Work Experience. These were sampled differentially within four strata: whites in white ED's (i.e., ED's which contained predominantly white households), Negroes and other races in white ED's, whites in Negro and other race ED's, and Negroes and other races in Negro and other race ED's.

The Field Work

Four hundred thirteen interviewers were assigned to this survey. The primary requirement for interviewers was previous experience with the Current Population Survey (CPS). A number of sections of the questionnaire dealt with labor force or socioeconomic concepts which were either similar to or identical with the CPS, thus a significant increase in quality and reduction of training costs was achieved.

A two-stage training program was used to provide specific instruction for this survey. First, two supervisors from each of the Bureau's 12 regional offices were trained in Washington; they in turn trained the interviewers and office clerks assigned to the survey in their regions. Each trainee was provided with a "verbatim" training guide prepared by the Bureau staff and reviewed by the Manpower Administration and the Center for Human Resource Research of the Ohio State University. The guide included not only lecture material, but a number of structured practice interviews to thoroughly familiarize the interviewers with the questionnaire. A total of 33 training sessions were held in some 24 cities throughout the country. Professional members of the participating organizations observed the regional supervisors during the training sessions.

A field edit was instituted in each regional office to insure adequate quality. This consisted of a "full edit" of the first three questionnaires returned by each interviewer and a partial edit of the remaining questionnaires from each interviewer's assignment. The full edit consisted of reviewing the questionnaires from beginning to end, to determine if the entries were complete and consistent and whether the skip instructions were being followed. This edit was designed to determine if the interviewer understood her job. The interviewer was contacted by phone concerning minor problems, and depending on the nature of the problem was either merely told of her error or asked to contact the respondent for further information or for clarification. For more serious problems the interviewer was retrained either totally or in part, and the questionnaire was returned for completion.

If problems arose, the complete edit was continued until the supervisor was satisfied that the interviewer was doing a complete and consistent job. The partial edit simply checked to determine that the interviewer had not inadvertently skipped any part of the questionnaire which should have been filled. Any questionnaire which failed the partial edit was returned to the interviewer for completion.

The training of interviewers began on May 22, 1967, and the interviewing immediately after. The interviewing continued until the end of July 1967. A number of factors were responsible for the elapsed time. First, the field work for the first follow-up interview of the Survey of Work Experience of Men 45 to 59 was done at the same time as this interview. Therefore, the interviewers were, in reality, responsible for completing two different surveys during this time period. In addition, there are limited times during the day when persons in this age group are available to be interviewed. The requirement that the interviewers be experienced in the CPS caused some delay. For about one week each month the interviewers were not able to work on this survey because of the conflicting demands of the CPS. Finally, extra time was allowed in order to reduce the number of noninterviews resulting from persons who were temporarily not available for interview or who were difficult to locate. Of the 5,393 females 30 to 44 originally selected for the sample, usable questionnaires were obtained from 5,083 cases for a completion rate of 94.3 percent. The 310 noninterview cases distribute as follows:

Reasons for Noninterview in Survey of Work Experience of Women 30 to 44

Totals	Total	Refused	Unable to locate		Other
			Mover	Nonmover	
Number of noninterviews	310	129	118	40	23
Percent of workload	5.7	2.4	2.2	0.7	0.4
Percent of all noninterviews	100.0	41.6	38.1	12.9	7.4

Estimating Methods

The estimation procedure adopted for this survey was a multi-stage ratio estimate. The first step was the assignment to each sample case of a basic weight which took into account the overrepresentation of Negro and other race strata, the rescreening procedure and the sampling fraction of the stratum from which it was selected. The sample drawn from the white stratum was selected at a six out of seven ratio, while no further selection was done for the sample from the Negro and other race stratum. Thus, from the Survey of Work Experience of Women 30 to 44 there were eight different base weights reflecting the differential sampling by color within stratum (i.e., white ED's versus Negro and other race ED's) during both the rescreening and selection operations.

1. Noninterview Adjustment

The weights for all interviewed persons were adjusted to the extent needed to account for persons for whom no information was obtained because of absence, refusals or unavailability for other reasons. This adjustment was made separately for each of sixteen groupings: Census region of residence (Northeast, North Central, South, West), by residence (urban, rural), by color (white, Negro and other races).

2. Ratio Estimates

The distribution of the population selected for the sample may differ somewhat, by chance, from that of the nation as a whole, in such characteristics as age, color, sex, and residence. Since these population characteristics are closely correlated with the principal measurements made from the sample, the latter estimates can be substantially improved when weighted appropriately by the known distribution of these population characteristics.[1] This was accomplished through two stages of ratio estimation, as follows:

a. First-Stage Ratio Estimation

This is a procedure in which the sample proportions were adjusted to the known 1960 Census data on the color-residence distribution of the population. This step took into account the differences existing at the time of the 1960 Census between the color-residence distribution for the nation and for the sample areas.

b. Second-Stage Ratio Estimation

In this final step, the sample proportions were adjusted to independent current estimates of the civilian noninstitutionalized population by age and color. These estimates were prepared by carrying forward the most recent Census data (1960) to take account of subsequent aging of the population, mortality, and migration between the United States and other countries.[2] The adjustment was made by color within three age groupings: 30 to 34, 35 to 39, and 40 to 44.

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[1] See U.S. Bureau of the Census, Technical Paper No. 7, "The Current Population Survey--A Report on Methodology," Washington, D.C., 1963, for a more detailed explanation of the preparation of estimates.

[2] See U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 352, Nov. 18, 1966, for a description of the methods used in preparing these independent population estimates.

After this step, each sample person has a weight which remains unchanged throughout the five-year life of the survey. The universe of study was thus fixed at the time of interview for the first cycle. No reweighting of the sample is made after subsequent cycles since the group of interviewed persons is an unbiased sample of the population group (in this case, civilian noninstitutionalized females age 30 to 44) in existence at the time of the first cycle only.

Coding and Editing

Most of the questionnaire required no coding, the data being punched directly from precoded boxes. However, the various job description questions used the Bureau's standard occupation and industry codes that are used with the monthly CPS. Codes for the other "open end" questions were developed in conjunction with Ohio State from tallies of usually ten percent subsamples of the returns.

The consistency edits for the questionnaire were completed on the computer. For the parts of the questionnaire which were similar to the CPS a modified CPS edit was used. For all other sections separate consistency checks were performed. None of the edits included an allocation routine which was dependent on averages or random information from outside sources, since such allocated data could not be expected to be consistent with data from subsequent surveys. However, where the answer to a question was obvious from others in the questionnaire, the missing answer was entered on the tape. For example, if item 21a ("Is it necessary for you to make any regular arrangements for the care of your children while you are working?") was blank, but legitimate entries appeared in 21b and c ("What arrangements have you made?" and "What is the cost of these arrangements?") a "Yes" was inserted in 21a. In this case, only if 21a was marked "Yes," could 21b and c be filled; therefore, the assumption was made that either the key punch operator failed to punch the item or the interviewer failed to mark it.

APPENDIX C

SAMPLING VARIATION

As in any survey based upon a sample, the data in this report are subject to sampling error, that is, variation attributable solely to the fact that they emerge from a sample rather than from a complete count of the population. Because the probabilities of a given individual's appearing in the sample are known, it is possible to estimate the sampling error, at least roughly. For example, it is possible to specify a "confidence interval" for each absolute figure or percentage, that is, the range within which the true value of the figure is likely to fall. For this purpose, the standard error of the statistic is generally used. One standard error on either side of a given statistic provides the range of values which has a two-thirds probability of including the true value. This probability increases to about 95 percent if a range of two standard errors is used.

Standard Errors of Percentages

In the case of percentages, the size of the standard error depends not only on the magnitude of the percentage, but also on the size of the base on which the percentage is computed. Thus, the standard error of 80 percent may be only 1 percentage point when the base is the total number of white women, but as much as 8 or 9 percentage points when the base is the total number of unemployed white women. Two tables of standard errors, one for whites and one for blacks, are shown below (Tables C-1 and C-2).

The method of ascertaining the appropriate standard error of a percentage[1] may be illustrated by the following example. Our estimates indicate that 20 percent of the white women in our sample have completed more than 12 years of school. Entering the table for white women (C-1)

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[1] Because the sample is not random, the conventional formula for the standard error of a percentage cannot be used. The entries in the tables have been computed on the basis of a formula suggested by the Bureau of the Census statisticians. They should be interpreted as providing an indication of the order of magnitude of the standard error, rather than a precise standard error for any specific item. Nonetheless, refined estimates of the standard errors of percentages prepared for our Initial Surveys of Men 45 to 59 and Boys 14 to 24 by Census statisticians are extremely close to the rough estimates computed using a formula identical to that employed in constructing tables C-1 and C-2.

Table C-1 Standard Errors of Estimated Percentages of Whites (68 chances out of 100)

Base of percentage (thousands)	Estimated Percentage				
	1 or 99	5 or 95	10 or 90	20 or 80	50
100	3.0	6.6	9.0	12.1	15.1
200	2.1	4.6	6.4	8.5	10.7
350	1.6	3.5	4.8	6.4	8.0
500	1.3	2.9	4.0	5.4	6.7
1,000	0.9	2.1	2.8	3.8	4.7
5,000	0.4	0.9	1.3	1.7	2.1
15,559	0.2	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.2

Table C-2 Standard Errors of Estimated Percentages of Blacks (68 chances out of 100)

Base of percentage (thousands)	Estimated Percentage				
	1 or 99	5 or 95	10 or 90	20 or 80	50
25	3.2	7.1	9.7	13.0	16.2
50	2.2	4.9	6.8	9.0	11.3
100	1.6	3.5	4.8	6.4	8.0
200	1.1	2.5	3.4	4.5	5.7
750	0.6	1.3	1.8	2.4	2.9
1,400	0.4	0.9	1.3	1.7	2.1
2,107	0.3	0.8	1.0	1.4	1.7

with the base of 15,559,000 and the percentage 20, one finds the standard error to be 1.0 percent. Thus the chances are two out of three that a complete enumeration would have resulted in a figure between 21 and 19 percent (20 ± 1.0) and 19 out of 20 that the figure would have been between 22 and 18 percent (20 ± 2.0).

Standard Errors of Differences between Percentages

In analyzing and interpreting the data, interest will perhaps most frequently center on the question whether observed differences in percentages are "real," or whether they result simply from sampling variation. If, for example, one finds on the basis of the survey that 3.3 percent of the whites, as compared with 7 percent of the blacks, are unable to work, the question arises whether this difference actually prevails in the population or whether it might have been produced by sampling variation. The answer to this question, expressed in terms of probabilities, depends on the standard error of the difference between the two percentages, which, in turn, is related to their magnitudes as well as to the size of the base of each. Although a precise answer to the question would require extended calculation, it is possible to construct charts that will indicate roughly, for different ranges of bases and different magnitudes of the percentages themselves, whether a given difference may be considered to be "significant," i.e., is sufficiently large that there is less than a 5 percent chance that it would have been produced by sampling variation alone. Such charts are shown below.

The magnitude of the quotient produced by dividing the difference between any two percentages by the standard error of the difference determines whether that difference is significant. Since the standard error of the difference depends only on the size of the percentages and their bases, for differences centered around a given percentage it is possible to derive a function which relates significant differences to the size of the bases of the percentages. If a difference around the given percentage is specified, the function then identifies those bases which will produce a standard error small enough for the given difference to be significant. The graphs which follow show functions of this type; each curve identifies combinations of bases that will make a given difference around a given percentage significant. For all combinations of bases on or to the northeast of a given curve, the given difference is the maximum difference necessary for significance.

Thus, to determine whether the difference between two percentages is significant, first locate the appropriate graph by selecting the one labeled with the percentage closest to the midpoint between the two percentages in question. When this percentage is under 50, the base of the larger percentage should be read on the horizontal axis of the chart and the base of the smaller percentage on the vertical axis. When the midpoint between the two percentages is greater than 50, the two axes are to be reversed. (When the midpoint is exactly 50 percent, either axis may be used for either base.) The two coordinates identify a point on the graph. The relation between this point and the curves indicates the order of magnitude required for a difference between the two percentages to be statistically significant at the 5 percent confidence level.[2]

All this may be illustrated as follows. Suppose in the case of the whites the question is whether the difference between 27 percent (on a base of 6,000,000)[3] and 33 percent (on a base of 5,000,000) is significant. Since the percentages center on 30 percent, Figure 4 should be used. Entering the vertical axis of this graph with 6,000,000 and the horizontal axis with 5,000,000 provides a coordinate which lies to the northeast of the curve showing combinations of bases for which a difference of 6 percent is significant. Thus the 6 percentage point difference (between 27 and 33 percent) is significant.

As an example of testing for the significance of a difference between two color groups, consider the following. The data in our study show that for women in the age cohort 35 to 39, 4 percent of the whites who have ever been married (on a base of 4,870,000) and 13 percent of the ever-married blacks (on a base of 685,000) were 15 years old or younger at the time of their first marriage. To determine whether this intercolor difference is significant, Figure 2 is used since the midpoint (8.5 percent) between the two percentages is closer to 10 than five.[4] Entering this graph at 4,870,000 on the vertical axis for whites and at 685,000 on the horizontal axis for blacks (calibrated at the top of the figure) provides a coordinate which lies to the northeast of the 5 percent curve. Thus the 9 percentage point difference in the incidence of early marriages is significant.

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[2] The point made in footnote 1 is equally relevant here. The graphs should be interpreted as providing only a rough (and probably conservative) estimate of the difference required for significance.

[3] Each of the curves in the graphs of this appendix illustrates a functional relationship between bases expressed in terms of actual sample cases. For convenience, however, the axes of the graphs are labeled in terms of blown-up estimates which simply reflect numbers of sample cases multiplied by a weighting factor.

[4] If both percentages are less (greater) than 50 and the midpoint between the two percentages is less (greater) than the percentage for which the curves were constructed, the actual differences necessary for significance will be slightly less than those shown on the curve. The required differences shown on the curves understate the actual differences necessary for significance when both percentages are less (greater) than 50 and the midpoint is greater (less) than the percentage for which the curves were constructed.

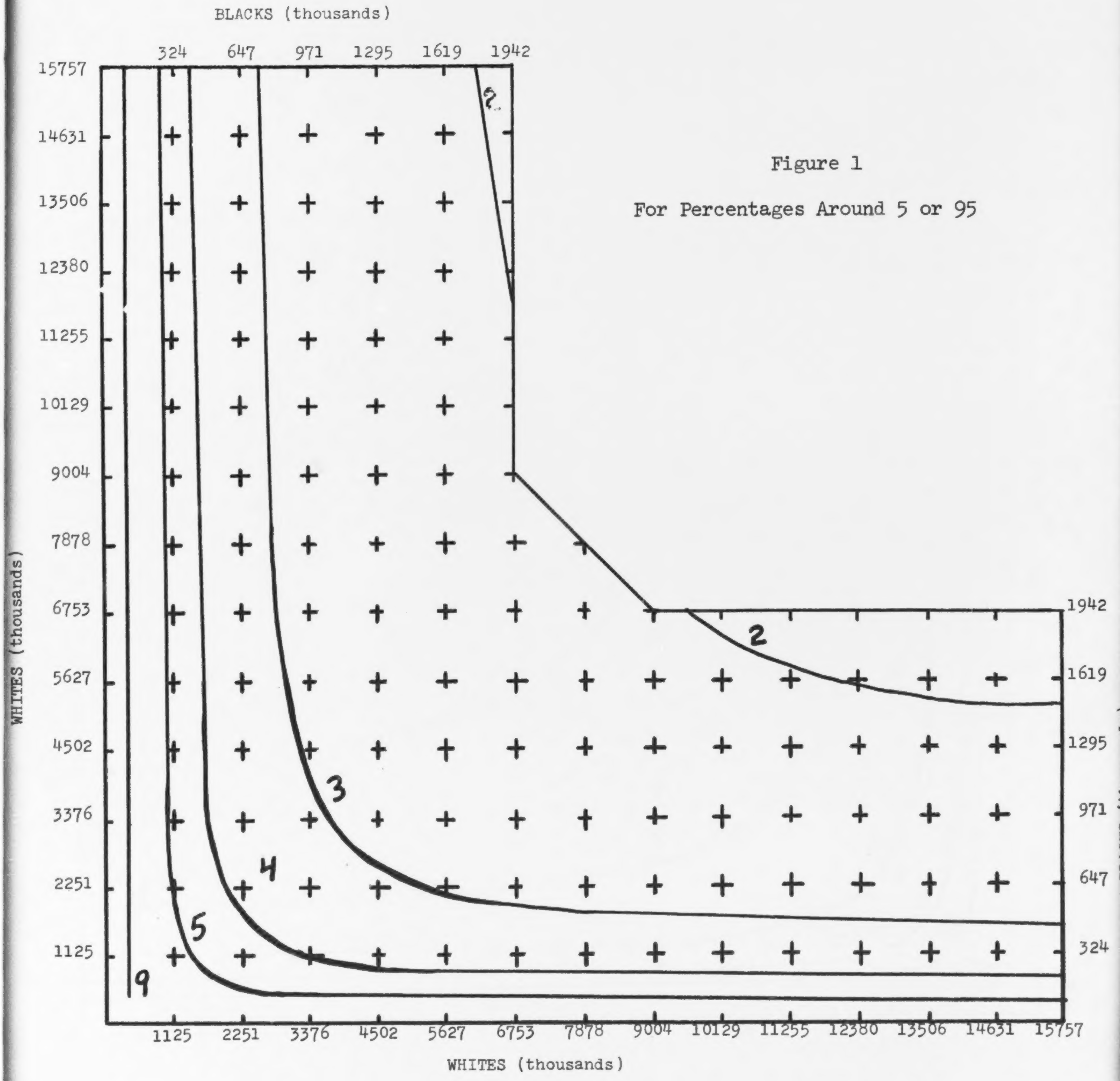

Figure 1

For Percentages Around 5 or 95

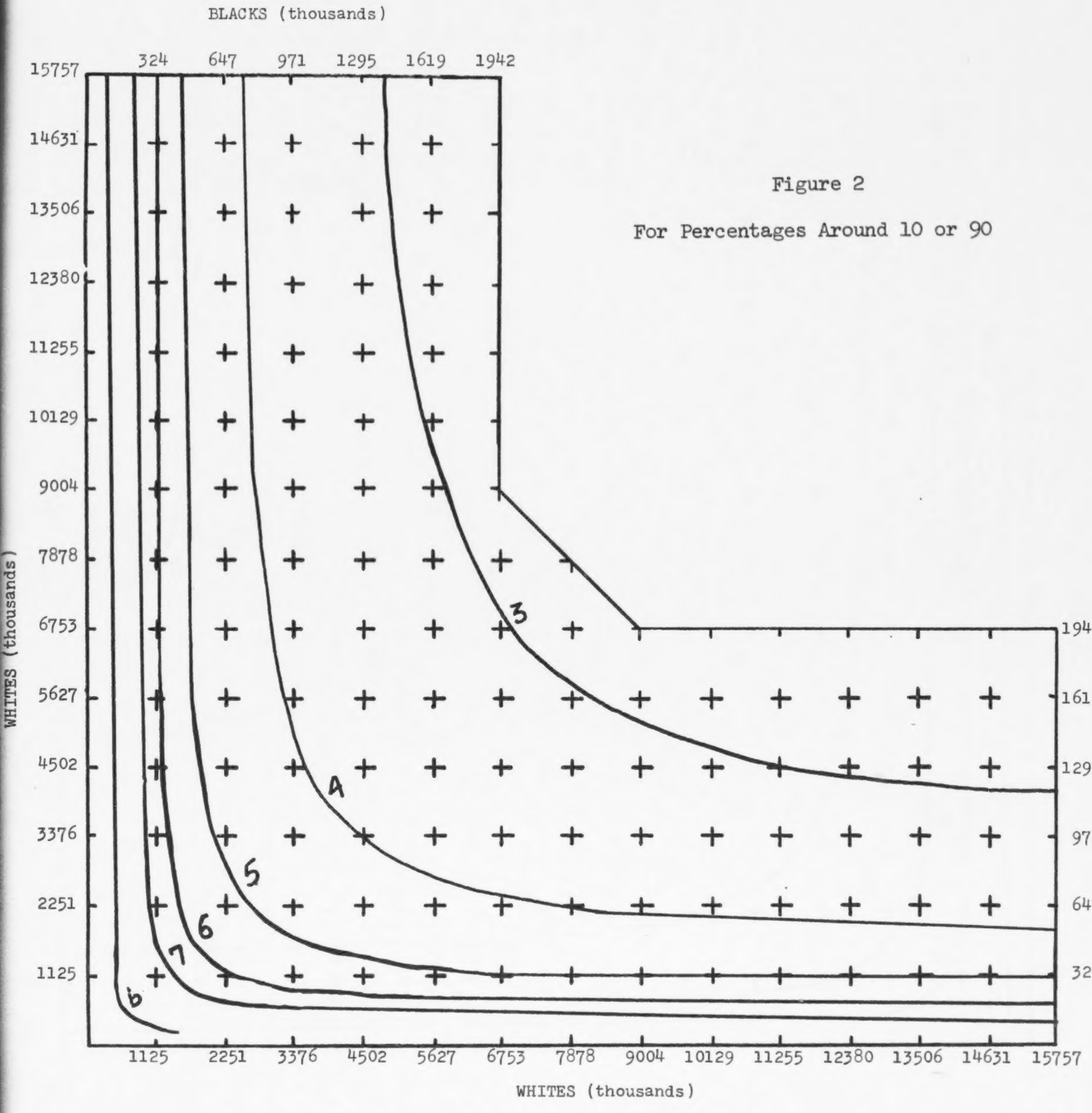

Figure 2

For Percentages Around 10 or 90

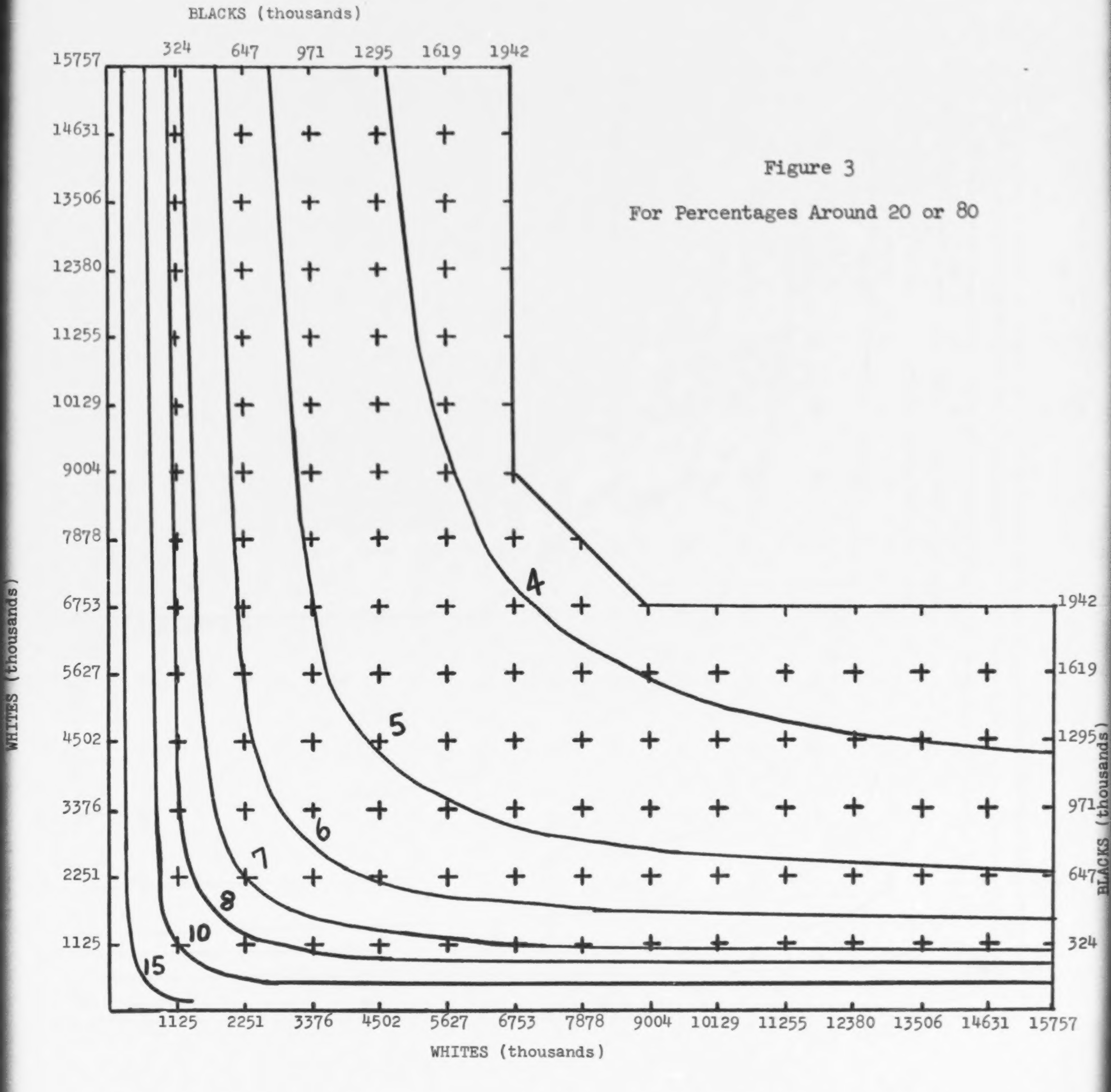

Figure 3

For Percentages Around 20 or 80

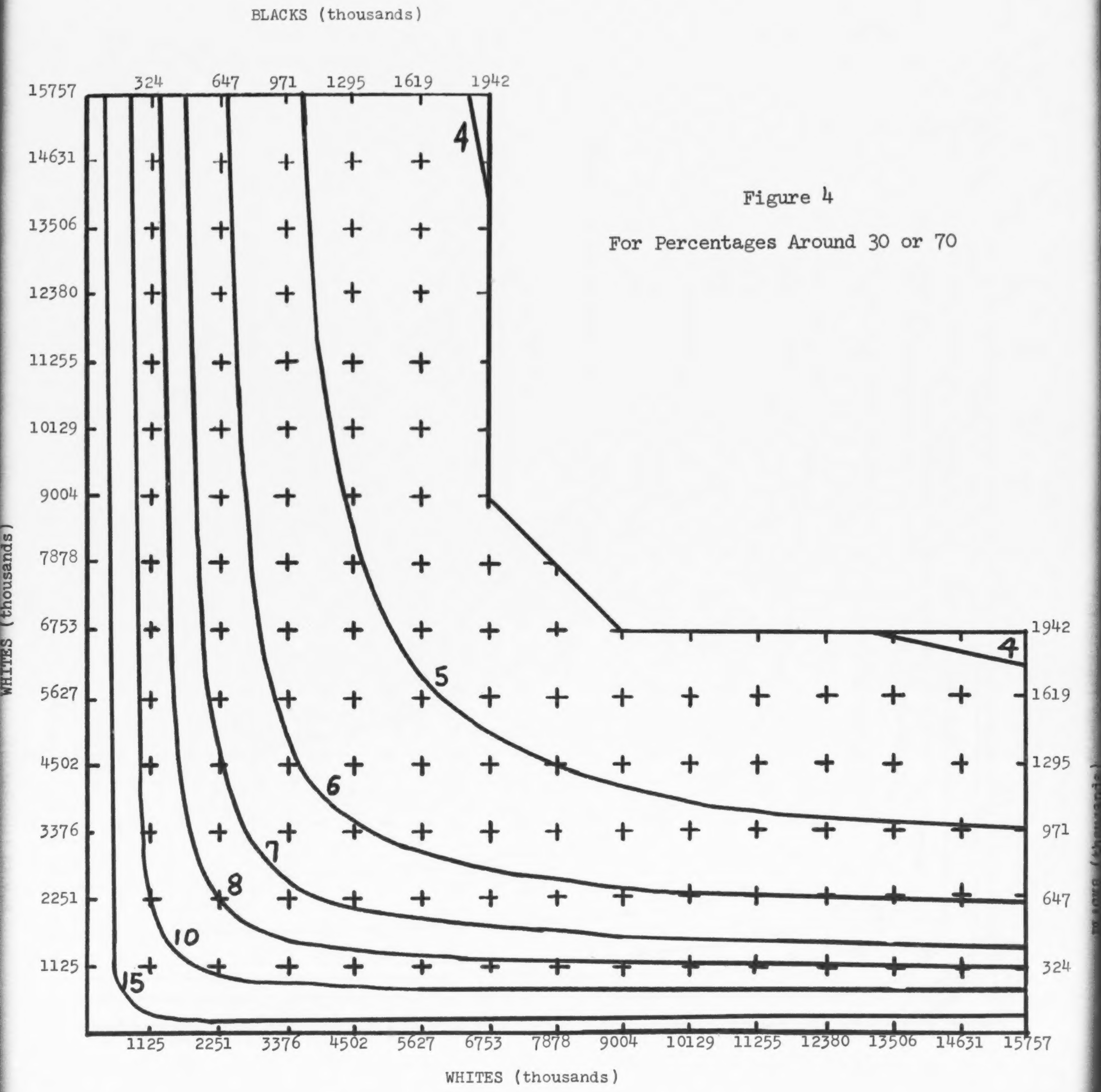

Figure 4

For Percentages Around 30 or 70

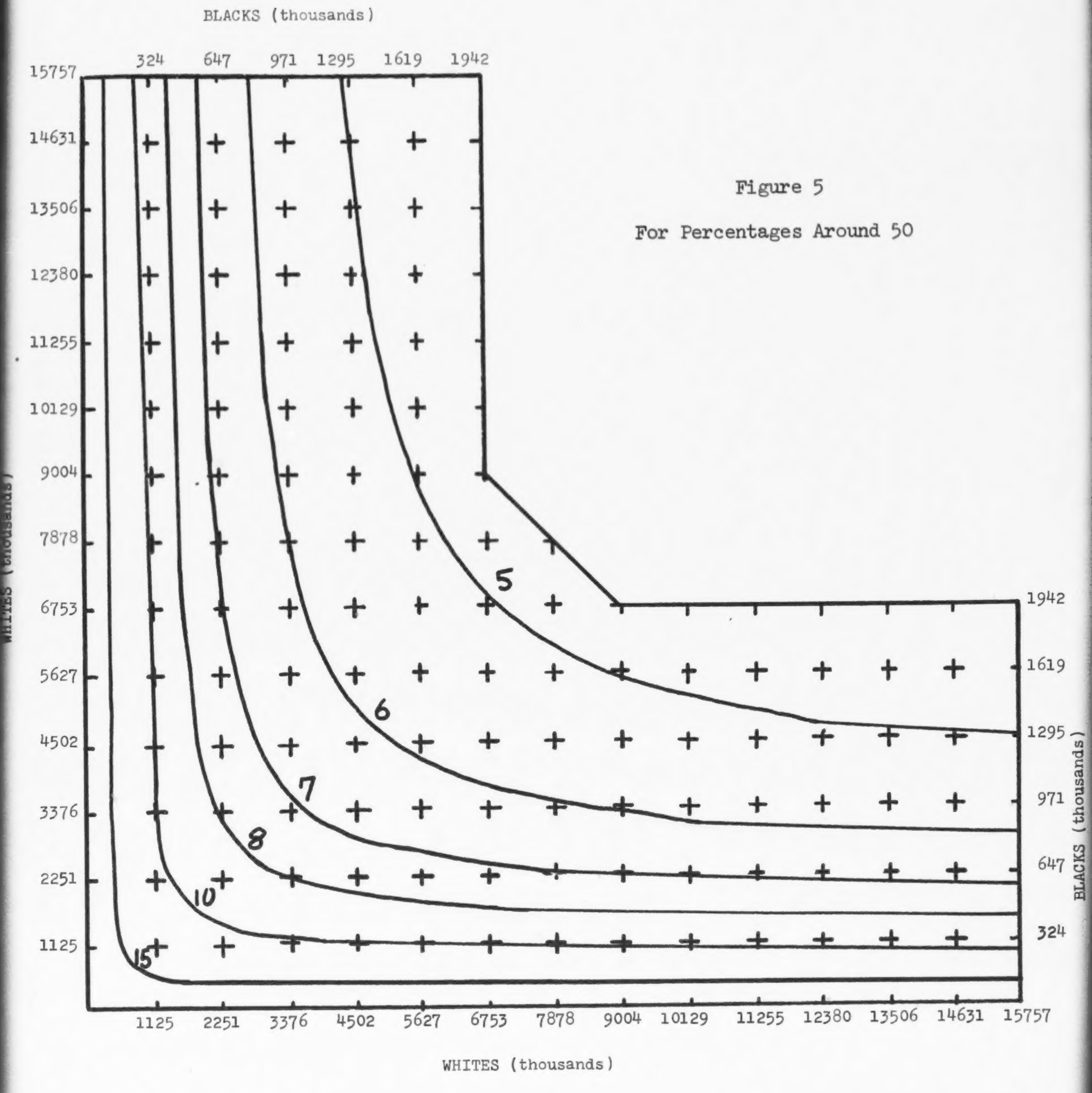

Figure 5

For Percentages Around 50

APPENDIX D

USE OF THE DUNCAN INDEX OF SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS TO MEASURE THE OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY OF ADULT WOMEN

The basic notion underlying the Duncan index of the socioeconomic status of occupations is that it is possible to arrange all occupations within a general hierarchical framework.[1] The Duncan index, however, was originally developed as a quantitative measure of the social position of men, and the question of whether the index is also a reasonably valid measure of the hierarchical position of occupations held by women was not considered. Given our use of the Duncan index in measuring the occupational mobility of women, there are two issues: Does the fact that data on women were not used in the construction of the index restrict its applicability to men? Assuming an affirmative answer to the first question, is the index reasonably stable over time; that is, does the index which was based on data gathered approximately 20 years ago, continue to measure the relative position of occupations?

Occupational prestige ratings developed by the National Opinion Research Center in the late 1940's form the basis for Duncan's index. Specific ratings were derived from an opinion survey based on a national sample of 2,920 persons in which each respondent was asked to assess the general standing of persons in each of 90 occupations. The precise rating for each occupation is simply the proportion of the sample of respondents who considered individuals in the occupation to be of "good" or "excellent" standing. Unfortunately, the NORC ratings fail to cover all Census occupations and those for which ratings are available encompassed less than half of the labor force in 1950. Nevertheless, the Duncan index represents an attempt to create a comprehensive, exhaustive index using NORC ratings as a foundation. From the 90 occupations for which prestige ratings were available, Duncan selected 45 which at that time corresponded directly to Census codes. Using standard statistical techniques, he then regressed measures of the income and education of men in these occupations in 1950 on the corresponding measure of prestige for each occupation. Because of the rather high positive correlation between the income and education variables, on the one hand, and prestige ratings on the other, his final step was to generate index values for all three-digit occupations by inserting measures of income and education for each Census occupation into the regression equation.

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[1] For a complete discussion of the index and the methods used in its construction, see Otis D. Duncan, "A Socioeconomic Index for All Occupations," in A. J. Reiss (ed.), Occupations and Social Status (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1961).

A large proportion of the occupations for which prestige ratings are available either suggest a clear male image from their title (e.g., railroad brakeman) or are occupations which are rarely held by women. Furthermore, the language of the survey instrument clearly implied the solicitation of an opinion concerning the general standing of men in the occupation. Thus, if the prestigious occupations for men are not prestigious for women, or if the relative prestige difference between occupations depends crucially on sex, it may be argued that an index based on the NORC prestige ratings will be of limited assistance in the analysis of the occupational status of women. However, for purposes of our survey, the important issue is whether the Duncan index in its present form provides a measure of the relative desirability of occupations held by women, not whether it measures, in some sense, the "socioeconomic status" of women within a social class context. We are simply interested in arraying occupations held by women along a continuum of relative attractiveness.

Two potential problems are created by the income and education data that were used by Duncan to estimate his base regression. Since these data relate only to men, the resulting index is applicable to women only if measures of income and education for women in a sample of occupations are closely correlated with the measures of these same variables for men. Furthermore, Duncan used 1950 Census data, and given the extensive shifts in the supply and demand for female labor that have occurred in the last two decades, it seems quite legitimate to inquire whether interoccupational differences in the income and education of employed women may also have changed substantially. To the extent that such shifts have occurred, an index based on 1950 data may be of limited applicability today.

The discussion which follows provides some empirical evidence bearing on the following two questions. First, to what extent is a linear combination of the measures of income and education for women correlated with the Duncan index, which is a linear combination of the measures of income and education for men? Second, to what extent is an index based on 1950 data for women correlated with an index estimated on the basis of 1960 Census data?

The scheme that would generate an index most comparable to Duncan's would involve deriving measures of income and education for women identical to those that Duncan derived for men. Duncan used an elaborate age adjustment process in constructing his education and income variables. As far as can be determined, the absence of a comparable age adjustment for women would not alter substantially the resulting index--at least for purposes of the rough test contemplated here. The following measures of income and education were used in constructing the indices for women; they are conceptually identical to Duncan's except that they are not age adjusted:

$_iX_1$ = the proportion of the women in occupation i with an income of $3,000 or more in 1949.
$_iX_2$ = the proportion of the women in occupation i who had completed 12 or more years of school by 1949.
$_iX_3$ = the proportion of the women in occupation i with an income of $5,000 or more in 1959.
$_iX_4$ = the proportion of the women in occupation i who had completed 12 or more years of school by 1959

Since the value of the index for any given occupation i depends on the magnitude of the income measure, and since per capita income increased substantially between 1949 and 1959, an income line of $5,000 was used to construct X_3. This income line is an approximation which reflects the decennial increase in labor productivity as well as in the price level. Furthermore, the range of variation of X_3 approximates that of X_1.

To generate his index values, Duncan used the following regression equation:

$$I_i = .59Y_i + .55E_i - 6.0,$$

where I_i represents the index value for occupation i, Y_i the income measure, and E_i the education measure. Since the coefficients of Y and E in this equation are approximately equal to .5, an arithmetic average of the income and education measures ought to serve as a close approximation to the index values calculated using the original regression equation. To simplify calculation procedures, the following indices were constructed for women in the 45 occupations that Duncan used in his regression:

$$_iW_{50} = \frac{_iX_1 + {_iX_2}}{2}$$

$$_iW_{60} = \frac{_iX_3 + {_iX_4},}{2}$$

where W_{50} and W_{60} refer to the index values for the two years; X_1, X_2, X_3, and X_4 have the meaning specified earlier; and the subscript i refers to occupation.

The women's index based on 1950 data for the 45 occupations is quite closely correlated with both the Duncan index for men and the NORC prestige ratings, the correlation coefficients being .93 and .87, respectively. The regression equation relating the women's index to Duncan's is:

$$_iW_{50} = 10.4 + .65I_i$$

Since the base set of 45 occupations is heavily weighted in favor of white-collar occupations (particularly professional and technical), a second test was made to determine whether this strong pattern of association would persist for three-digit blue-collar occupations. To do this, index values were computed for the 21 occupational categories under the classification "operative and kindred workers--manufacturing." For this sample, the correlation coefficient between the value of the index for women and the Duncan index was .92 and the regression equation was:

$$_iW_{50} = 4.00 + .60I_i$$

The similarity of the coefficients of I_i in the two equations serves as additional evidence of the close relationship between the two indices, Duncan's and ours.

The 1950 and 1960 women's indices are also quite closely related. The correlation coefficient between the two is .93, and if one eliminates the occupation for which estimates were based on a small number of sample cases (occupations containing less than 1,000 women in 1960), this coefficient increases to .96. Thus, one may reasonably conclude that the Duncan index, at least for women, is relatively stable over time.

It bears repeating that the Duncan index is not used in this report as a measure of socioeconomic status, since that is a concept usually associated with the role of adult men. Nevertheless, because this readily available and widely understood index provides a good measure of the vertical position of the occupations of both men and women based on income and education, it is used as a measure of the relative desirability or attractiveness of occupational assignments.

APPENDIX E

NONRESPONSE RATES

For most of the variables presented in this volume there were varying numbers of women from whom information was not obtained, because either the response to the specific question was unclassifiable or no answer was given. Rarely (in the case of only six variables) is the number of no responses larger than 10 percent of the relevant total. This appendix presents a table with the major variables used in the report (for both blacks and whites), the definition of the appropriate universe, the number of women in that universe, and the number and proportion of responses that were not ascertained.

Variable name	Item number on interview schedule	Definition of universe	Universe number (thousands)	Not ascertained		Universe number (thousands)	Not ascertained	
				Total number (thousands)	Percent		Total number (thousands)	Percent
			WHITES			BLACKS		
Reason for part-time work	2c	Worked 1-34 hours during survey week	2,544	20	0.8	440	11	2.5
Industry of current job	6c	Employed wage and salary workers	6,267	4	0.1	1,207	1	0.1
Mobility between first and current job	6e, 47b	Ever married, no children; employed between school and first marriage; employed at some time since 1/1/66	831	54	6.5	159	6	3.8
Mobility between first and current job	6e, 50b	Ever married, with children; employed between school and first marriage, employed at some time since 1/1/66	4,085	165	4.0	797	32	4.0
Mobility between first and current job	6e, 57b	Never married, no children; employed at some time since 1/1/66	653	52	8.0	61	0	0.0
Length of service in current job	6f	Employed wage and salary workers	6,267	14	0.2	1,207	15	1.2
Travel time between home and work	8a	Respondents employed at some time since 1/1/66	8,558	126	1.5	1,536	32	2.1
Means of transportation to work	8b	Respondents employed at some time since 1/1/66	8,558	180	2.1	1,536	19	1.2
Daily direct cost of going to work	8c, d	Respondents employed at some time since 1/1/66 who do not walk to work	7,343	5	0.1	1,328	0	0.0
Rate of pay on current job	9a	Employed wage and salary workers	6,267	392	6.3	1,207	163	13.5
Whether works full- or part-time	9b	Employed wage and salary workers	6,267	94	1.6	1,207	21	1.7
Usual hours worked per week	9b	Employed wage and salary workers with children under 18 who have child-care arrangements	1,487	15	1.0	343	0	0.0
Attitude toward job	10	Employed respondents	7,120	36	0.5	1,253	7	0.6
Factor liked best about job	11	Employed respondents	7,120	55	0.8	1,253	23	1.8
Factor liked least about job	12	Employed respondents	7,120	102	1.4	1,253	16	1.3
Motivation to work	13	Employed wage and salary workers	6,267	27	0.4	1,207	6	0.5
Commitment to work	14a	Employed wage and salary workers	6,267	23	0.4	1,207	9	0.7
Reaction to hypothetical job offer	15	Employed respondents	7,120	668	9.4	1,253	172	13.7
Reaction to hypothetical job loss	16	Employed wage and salary workers	6,267	41	0.6	1,207	3	0.2
Length of time will continue in present job	20a	Employed respondents	7,120	28	0.4	1,253	5	0.4
Plans five years hence	20a, b, 29a, 33a	All respondents	15,559	309	2.0	2,107	44	2.1
Whether child-care arrangements are necessary	21a	Employed wage and salary workers with children under 18 in the home	4,406	13	0.3	898	4	0.4
Type of child-care arrangements	21b	Employed respondents with children under 18 who have child-care arrangements	1,634	11	0.7	345	0	0.0
Cost of child-care arrangements	21c	Employed respondents with children under 18 who have child-care arrangements	1,634	43	2.9	345	13	3.8
Reason for commitment to work	23b	Employed respondents who would continue to work if lost current job	4,151	15	0.4	833	7	0.8
Number of weeks worked, 1966	34a	Employed wage and salary workers	6,267	5	0.1	1,207	9	0.7
Number of marriages	39	Ever married respondents with work experience	14,224	33	0.2	1,891	9	0.5
Age of respondent at first marriage	40a, 41a	Ever married respondents	14,806	107	0.7	1,956	40	2.0
Elapsed time between first marriage and birth of first child	40a, 41a, 43a, 45	Ever married respondents, ever had children	13,861	104	0.8	1,806	24	1.3

Variable name	Item number on interview schedule	Definition of universe	Universe number (thousands)	Not ascertained		Universe number (thousands)	Not ascertained	
				Total number (thousands)	Percent		Total number (thousands)	Percent
			WHITES			BLACKS		
Number of children ever	42b, 43c, 44b,123b	All respondents	15,559	9	0.1	2,107	0	0.0
Age at birth of first child	45	Ever-married respondents, ever had children	13,887	67	0.5	1,682	13	0.7
Occupation of longest job between school and first marriage	47b	Ever married, ever had children; employed between school and first marriage; employed at some time since 1/1/66	5,279	88	1.7	797	32	4.0
Elapsed time between school and first marriage	48b	Ever-married respondents with work experience	14,224	176	1.2	1,891	49	2.6
Average labor force participation rate since leaving school	48b,51,54, 56,59b,61b, 64	Employed wage and salary workers	6,267	156	2.5	1,207	122	10.1
Attitude toward employment of mothers	66	Married respondents with husband present or absent	13,549	40	0.3	1,424	1	0.1
Husband's attitude toward respondent's working	67,68	Married respondents with husband present	13,442	322	2.4	1,404	42	3.0
Attitude toward keeping house	69a	Married respondents with husband present	13,442	39	0.3	1,404	7	0.5
Attitude toward caring for children	69b	Married respondents with husband present	13,442	87	0.6	1,404	12	0.8
Spare-time activities	70	Married respondents with husband present	13,442	61	0.4	1,404	7	0.5
Effect of health on work	71	All respondents	15,559	45	0.3	2,107	2	0.1
Duration of health problem	72c	Respondents with health problem	2,813	332	11.8	454	34	7.5
Self-rating of health	73	All respondents	15,559	312	2.0	2,107	57	2.7
Husband's health	74	Married respondents with husband present	13,442	34	0.2	1,404	2	0.1
Other family members with health problems	76a	Respondents living with another family member	13,969	50	0.4	1,841	2	0.1
Whether health problems of other family members influenced respondent's decision to work	76e	Respondents living with another family member with a health problem	1,730	28	1.6	273	7	2.6
Highest year of school completed	77a,b	All respondents	15,559	42	0.3	2,107	5	0.2
Whether took vocational or commercial curriculum in high school	78a	Ever married, completed high school 3, employed between school and first marriage	7,002	28	0.4	531	1	0.2
Whether took typing and/or shorthand in high school	78c	Ever married, attended high school, employed between school and first marriage	10,335	92	0.9	938	2	0.2
Extent of occupational training received	79a,c	All respondents	15,559	609	3.9	2,107	69	3.3
Whether has trade or professional certificate	83a,c	All respondents	15,559	112	0.7	2,107	18	0.8
Total net assets	84-93	All respondents	15,559	4,904	31.5	2,107	429	20.4
Husband's earnings, 1966	94b	Married respondents with husband present	13,442	830	6.2	1,404	114	8.1
Total earnings of respondent, 1966	94a,95a	All respondents	15,559	295	1.9	2,107	65	3.1
Total family income less respondent's earnings, 1966	94–106	Respondents living with another family member	15,092	3,285	21.8	1,996	397	19.9
Number of consumer durables purchased,1966	107	All respondents	15,559	219	1.4	2,107	22	1.0
Major expenditures, 1966	108,109	All respondents	15,559	59	0.4	2,107	6	0.3
Residence at age 15	116	All respondents	15,559	61	0.4	2,107	5	0.2
Living arrangements at age 15	117	All respondents	15,559	37	0.2	2,107	4	0.2
Occupation of father or head of household when respondent was age 15	118a	Married respondents with husband present or absent, living in household at age 15	13,337	384	2.9	1,395	1	0.1
Occupation of mother when respondent was age 15	119a	Respondents living with mother at age 15	14,330	230	1.6	1,670	45	2.3
Number of dependents	120a	All respondents	15,559	41	0.3	2,107	8	0.4
Relationship to head of household	123b	All respondents	15,559	48	0.3	2,107	8	0.4
Hours worked by husband, 1966	131,132	All respondents	15,559	363	2.3	2,107	51	2.4

Budget Bureau No. 41-R2395; Approval Expires April 30, 1968

FORM **LGT-301**
(3-20-67)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

NATIONAL LONGITUDINAL SURVEYS

SURVEY OF WORK EXPERIENCE OF WOMEN 30 – 44

1967

NOTICE – Your report to the Census Bureau is confidential by law (Title 13, U.S. Code). It may be seen only by sworn Census employees and may be used only for statistical purposes.

1. Control No.

2. Line number of respondent ____________

3. Name

4. Address ____________

5. Interviewed by

Code

RECORD OF CALLS

Date	Time	Comments
1.	a.m. p.m.	
2.	a.m. p.m.	
3.	a.m. p.m.	
4.	a.m. p.m.	

RECORD OF INTERVIEW

Interview time		Date completed	Comments
Began	Ended		
a.m. p.m.	a.m. p.m.		

NONINTERVIEW REASON

1 ☐ Temporarily absent

2 ☐ Unable to locate respondent – *Specify* ____________

3 ☐ Refused

4 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________

TRANSCRIPTION FROM HOUSEHOLD RECORD CARD

Item 2 – Identification code ____________

Item 15 – Age ____________

Item 22 – Tenure

1 ☐ Owned or being bought
2 ☐ Rented
3 ☐ No cash rent

Item 13 – Marital status

1 ☐ Married spouse present
2 ☐ Married spouse absent
3 ☐ Widowed
4 ☐ Divorced
5 ☐ Separated
6 ☐ Never married

Item 16 – Race

1 ☐ White
2 ☐ Negro
3 ☐ Other

Items 23 – 25 – Land usage

1 ☐ A
2 ☐ B
3 ☐ C
4 ☐ D
5 ☐ E

IF RESPONDENT HAS MOVED, ENTER NEW ADDRESS

Number and street	City

County	State	ZIP code

USCOMM-DC

I. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS

1. What were you doing most of LAST WEEK –

{Working
{Keeping house
or something else

1 ☐ WK – Working – *SKIP to 2a*
2 ☐ J – With a job but not at work
3 ☐ LK – Looking for work
4 ☐ S – Going to school
5 ☐ KH – Keeping house
6 ☐ U – Unable to work – *SKIP to 5a*
7 ☐ OT – Other – *Specify*

____

2c. Do you USUALLY work 35 hours or more a week at this job?

1 ☐ Yes – What is the reason you worked less than 35 hours LAST WEEK?
2 ☐ No – What is the reason you USUALLY work less than 35 hours a week?

(Mark the appropriate reason)

01 ☐ Slack work
02 ☐ Material shortage
03 ☐ Plant or machine repair
04 ☐ New job started during week
05 ☐ Job terminated during week
06 ☐ Could find only part-time work
07 ☐ Holiday (legal or religious)
08 ☐ Labor dispute
09 ☐ Bad weather
10 ☐ Own illness
11 ☐ Illness of family member
12 ☐ On vacation
13 ☐ Too busy with housework
14 ☐ Too busy with school, personal business, etc.
15 ☐ Did not want full-time work
16 ☐ Full-time work week under 35 hours
17 ☐ Other reason – *Specify*

____

(If entry in 2c, SKIP to 6 and enter job worked at last week.)

2. Did you do any work at all LAST WEEK, not counting work around the house?

(Note: If farm or business operator in household, ask about unpaid work.)

1 ☐ Yes x ☐ No – *SKIP to 3*

2a. How many hours did you work LAST WEEK at all jobs? ______

2b. INTERVIEWER CHECK ITEM

1 ☐ 49 or more – *SKIP to 6*
2 ☐ 1 – 34 – *ASK 2c*
3 ☐ 35 – 48 – *ASK 2d*

2d. Did you lose any time or take any time off LAST WEEK for any reason such as illness, holiday, or slack work?

1 ☐ Yes – How many hours did you take off? ______
2 ☐ No

(Correct 2a if lost time not already deducted; if 2a reduced below 35, fill 2c, otherwise SKIP to 6.)

2e. Did you work any overtime or at more than one job LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Yes – How many extra hours did you work? ______
2 ☐ No

(Correct 2a if extra hours not already included and SKIP to 6.)

(If "J" in 1, SKIP to 3a.)

3. Did you have a job (or business) from which you were temporarily absent or on layoff LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Yes x ☐ No – *SKIP to 4*

3a. Why were you absent from work LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Own illness
2 ☐ Illness of family member
3 ☐ On vacation
4 ☐ Too busy with housework, school, personal business
5 ☐ Bad weather
6 ☐ Labor dispute
7 ☐ New job to begin within 30 days – *ASK 4c2*
8 ☐ Temporary layoff (Under 30 days) } *ASK 4c3*
9 ☐ Indefinite layoff (30 days or more or no definite recall date) } *ASK 4c3*
0 ☐ Other – *Specify*

____

3b. Are you getting wages or salary for any of the time off LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
3 ☐ Self-employed

3c. Do you usually work 35 hours or more a week at this job?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

(SKIP to 6 and enter job held last week.)

Notes

FORM LGT-301 (3-20-67)

I. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS – Continued

(If "LK" in 1, SKIP to 4a.)

4. Have you been looking for work during the past 4 weeks?

1 ☐ Yes x ☐ No – *SKIP to 5a*

4a. What have you been doing in the last 4 weeks to find work?

(Mark all methods used; do not read list.)

Checked with –

1 ☐ State employment agency
2 ☐ Private employment agency
3 ☐ Employer directly
4 ☐ Friends or relatives
5 ☐ Placed or answered ads
6 ☐ Nothing – *SKIP to 5a*
7 ☐ Other – *Specify – e.g., MDTA, union or professional register, etc.*

____

4b. Why did you start looking for work? Was it because you lost or quit a job at that time or was there some other reason?

1 ☐ Lost job
2 ☐ Quit job
3 ☐ Wanted temporary work
4 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________________

4c. 1) How many weeks have you been looking for work?

2) How many weeks ago did you start looking for work?

3) How many weeks ago were you laid off?

Number of weeks __________

4d. Have you been looking for full-time or part-time work?

1 ☐ Full-time work 2 ☐ Part-time work

4e. Is there any reason why you could not take a job LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Yes →
- 2 ☐ Already has a job
- 3 ☐ Temporary illness
- 4 ☐ Going to school
- 5 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________________

6 ☐ No

4f. In what year did you last work at a regular full- or part-time job lasting two consecutive weeks or more? *Record year last job ended on Reference Information sheet (Labor Force Group B)*

1 ☐ January 1966 or later
2 ☐ 1962 – 65 – *Specify month and year*
Month __________ year ______
3 ☐ Before 1962 – Specify year ______
} *SKIP to 5b*

4 ☐ Never worked 2 weeks or more
5 ☐ Never worked at all
} *SKIP to Check Item C, Page 5*

5a. In what year did you last work at a regular full- or part-time job or business? *Record year last job ended on Reference Information Sheet (Labor Force Group C)*

1 ☐ January 1966 or later
2 ☐ 1962 – 65 – *Specify month and year*
Month __________ Year ______
3 ☐ Before 1962 – *Specify year* ______
} *ASK 5b*

4 ☐ Never worked – *SKIP to Check Item C, page 5*

5b. On that job did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?

1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours

5c. Why did you leave your last job?

01 ☐ To get married
02 ☐ Husband wanted her to quit
03 ☐ Husband transferred, moved
04 ☐ Own health
05 ☐ Pregnancy
06 ☐ Health of family members
07 ☐ Devote more time to family
08 ☐ Seasonal job completed
09 ☐ Slack work or business conditions
10 ☐ Temporary nonseasonal work completed
11 ☐ Unsatisfactory work arrangements (hour, pay, etc.)
12 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________________

GO to 6 and describe that job

6. DESCRIPTION OF JOB OR BUSINESS

6a. For whom did you work? *(Name of company, business, organization or other employer)*

____

6b. In what city and State is . . . located?

City ____________________
State ____________________

6c. What kind of business or industry is this? *(For example, TV and radio manufacturer, retail shoe store, restaurant, State Labor Department, farm)*

____

Census use only

6d. Were you –

1 ☐ P – An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary, or commission?
2 ☐ G – A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)?
3 ☐ O – Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm?

(If not a farm)– Is this business incorporated?

☐ Yes ☐ No

4 ☐ WP – Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?

6e. What kind of work were you doing? *(For example, typist, elementary teacher, waitress, stock clerk)*

____

Census use only

I. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS – Continued

6f. When did you start working at this job or business? *If 1966 or later, enter both month and year.*	**6f.** Year ____________ Month ____________
7. How did you find out about that job? *If "Other," specify here* ____________ ____________	**7.** 1 ☐ State employment agency 2 ☐ Private employment agency 3 ☐ Checked directly with employer 4 ☐ Newspaper ads 5 ☐ Friends or relatives 6 ☐ Other

CHECK ITEM A

× ☐ Respondent has not worked since January 1966 – *SKIP to Check Item C, page 5*

1 ☐ All others – *ASK 8*

8a. How much time (does, did) it usually take you to get to work (one way)?	**8a.** ____________
b. What means of transportation do you usually use to get to work? – *Check as many boxes as apply* *If "Other," specify here* ____________ ____________	**b.** 1 ☐ Own auto – *ASK 8c* 2 ☐ Ride with someone else 3 ☐ Bus or streetcar 4 ☐ Subway or elevated } *ASK 8d* 5 ☐ Railroad 6 ☐ Taxicab 7 ☐ Walked only } *SKIP to Check Item B* 8 ☐ Other
c. 1. What is the total cost of any parking fees or tolls you have to pay (round trip)?	**c.** 1. 0 ☐ No cost or $ ____________ per ____________
2. How many miles do you go by car (round trip)?	2. Miles ____________

☐ Only box 1 marked in 8b – *SKIP to Check Item B*

☐ Box 1 and any of boxes 2 – 6 marked in 8b – *ASK 8d*

d. What is the total cost of the round trip by (means of transportation given in b)?	**d.** 0 ☐ No cost or $ ____________ per ____________

CHECK ITEM B

1 ☐ "P" or "G" in item 6d – *ASK 9*

× ☐ "O" or "WP" in item 6d – *SKIP to Check Item C, page 5*

9a. How much do (did) you earn at (job listed in 6a)?	**9a.** $ ____________ per ____________
b. How many hours a week do (did) you usually work at this job?	**b.** Hours ____________
c. Do (did) you receive extra pay when you work (worked) over a certain number of hours a week?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 9d* 2 ☐ No – compensating time off only } *SKIP to Check Item C, page 5* 3 ☐ No 4 ☐ Never work overtime
d. After how many hours do (did) you receive extra pay?	**d.** 1 ☐ Hours ________ per day 2 ☐ Hours ________ per week
e. For all hours worked over (entry in 9d) are (were) you paid straight time, time and one-half, double time, or is there some other arrangement? *If "Other," specify here* ____________ ____________	**e.** 1 ☐ Straight time 2 ☐ Time and one-half 3 ☐ Double time 4 ☐ Compensating time off 5 ☐ Other

II. ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK

CHECK ITEM C	Respondent is in Labor Force Group 1 ☐ A ("WK" in I or "Yes" in 2 or 3) – *ASK 10* 2 ☐ B ("LK" in I or "Yes" in 4) – *SKIP to 22* × ☐ C (All others) – *SKIP to 30*	*Record Labor Force Group on Reference Information Sheet*

LABOR FORCE GROUP A

10. How do you feel about the job you have now? Respondent's comments __________	**10.** Do you 1 ☐ Like it very much? 2 ☐ Like it fairly well? 3 ☐ Dislike it somewhat? 4 ☐ Dislike it very much?

11. What are the things you like best about your job? – *After respondent gives an answer*, *ASK* "Anything else?"

1. __________
2. __________
3. __________

12. What are the things about your job that you don't like so well? –*After respondent gives an answer, ASK* "Anything else?"

1. __________
2. __________
3. __________

13. What would you say is the more important thing about any job – good wages or liking the kind of work you are doing?	**13.** 1 ☐ Good wages 2 ☐ Liking the work

Respondent's comments __________

14a. If, by some chance you (and your husband) were to get enough money to live comfortably without working, do you think that you would work anyway?	**14a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to c* 3 ☐ Undecided – *SKIP to d*

b. Why do you feel that you would work?

____

c. Why do you feel that you would not work?

____

d. On what would it depend?

____

15. Suppose someone IN THIS AREA offered you a job in the same line of work you're in now. How much would the new job have to pay for you to be willing to take it? – *If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents. Otherwise, round to the nearest dollar.* Respondent's comments __________	**15.** $ ________ per ________ 1 ☐ I wouldn't take it at any conceivable pay 2 ☐ I would take a steady job at same or less pay
16. If for some reason you were permanently to lose your present job tomorrow, what would you do? *If "Other" specify here* __________	**16.** 1 ☐ Take another job I know about – *ASK 17* 2 ☐ Look for work – *SKIP to 18* 3 ☐ Stay at home – *SKIP to 19* 4 ☐ Other – *SKIP to 20*

II. ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK – Continued

17a. For whom would you work?

____

b. What kind of work do you think you would be doing?

____ – *SKIP to 20a*

18a. What kind of work would you look for?

____

b. Are there any particular employers to whom you would apply?	**b.** Number of employers listed ________ 0 ☐ Companies of a particular type x ☐ None } *SKIP to 20a*

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____

c. Why do you mention these particular employers?

____ – *SKIP to 20a*

19. Is there any particular reason why you plan to stay at home?	**19.** 1 ☐ Yes – *Specify* __________ 2 ☐ No
20a. How long do you think you will continue to work at your present job?	**20a.** 1 ☐ Less than 1 year 2 ☐ 1 – 4 years } *ASK 20b* 3 ☐ 5 years or longer 4 ☐ As long as I can 5 ☐ Don't know } *SKIP to 21*
b. What do you plan to do immediately after you stop working at your present job? *If "Other," specify here* __________	**b.** 1 ☐ Take another job I know about 2 ☐ Look for work } *ASK 20 c – d* 3 ☐ Stay home – *SKIP to 20e* 4 ☐ Go to school, get additional training 5 ☐ Other } *SKIP to 21*

c. What kind of work do you think you will (be doing) (look for)?

____

d. Do you think it will be part-time or full-time work?	**d.** 1 ☐ Part-time 2 ☐ Full-time } *SKIP to 21*
e. Is there any particular reason why you plan to stay at home?	**e.** 1 ☐ Yes – *Specify* __________ 2 ☐ No

x ☐ Respondent has no children under age 18 in the household – *SKIP to 34*

21a. Is it necessary for you to make any regular arrangements for the care of your children while you are working?	**21a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b and c* 2 ☐ No – *ASK d*
b. What arrangements have you made?	**b.** Child is cared for 1 ☐ In own home by relative 2 ☐ In own home by nonrelative 3 ☐ In relative's home 4 ☐ In nonrelative's home 5 ☐ At school or group care center (day care center, day nursery, nursery school, after-school center, settlement house, etc.)
c. What is the cost of these child care arrangements?	**c.** 0 ☐ No cost $______ per ________ *SKIP to 34*

d. Why is that? __________________________________ – *SKIP to 34*

II. ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK – Continued

LABOR FORCE GROUP B

22. What kind of work are you looking for?

____

23. How much would the job have to pay for you to be willing to take it?	**23.** $ __________ per __________
24. How many hours per week do you want to work?	**24.** Hours __________
25a. Are there any restrictions, such as hours or location of job that would be a factor in your taking a job?	**25a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 26*

b. What are these restrictions?

____

____

0 ☐ Respondent has no children under age 18 in the household – *SKIP to 27*

26a. Will it be necessary for you to make any special arrangements for the care of your children, if you find a job?	**26a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *ASK c*
b. What arrangements will you make?	**b.** Child will be cared for 1 ☐ In own home by relative 2 ☐ In own home by nonrelative 3 ☐ In relative's home 4 ☐ In nonrelative's home 5 ☐ At school or group care center (day care center, day nursery, nursery school, after-school center, Settlement house, etc.) 6 ☐ Don't know *SKIP to 27*

c. Why is that? ______________________________

27. What would you say is the more important thing about any job – good wages or liking the kind of work you are doing? Respondent's comments __________	**27.** 1 ☐ Good wages 2 ☐ Liking the work
28a. If, by some chance, you (and your husband) were to get enough money to live comfortably without working, do you think you would work anyway?	**28a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to c* 3 ☐ Undecided – *SKIP to d*

b. Why do you feel that you would work?

____

c. Why do you feel that you would not work?

____

d. On what would it depend?

____

Notes

II. ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK – Continued

29a. What do you expect to be doing five years from now – working, staying home, or something else? *If "Other," specify here* ______________________	**29a.** 1 ☐ Working – *ASK 29 b – c* 2 ☐ Staying home – *SKIP to 29d* 3 ☐ Go to school, get additional training 4 ☐ Other *SKIP to 34*
b. What kind of work do you think you will be doing? ______________________	
c. Do you think it will be part-time or full-time?	**c.** 1 ☐ Part-time 2 ☐ Full-time *SKIP to 34*
d. Is there any particular reason why you plan to stay at home?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes – *Specify* ______________________ 2 ☐ No *SKIP to 34*

LABOR FORCE GROUP C

30a. If you were offered a job by some employer IN THIS AREA, do you think you would take it?	**30a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 30 b – g* 2 ☐ It depends – *Specify "On what" and ask 30 b – g* ______________________ x ☐ No – *SKIP to 32*
b. What kind of work would it have to be? ______________________	
c. What would the wages or salary have to be? *If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents, otherwise, round to the nearest dollar.*	**c.** $ ____________ per ____________
d. Are there any restrictions, such as hours or location of job, that would be a factor in your taking a job?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK e* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to f*
e. What are these restrictions? ______________________ ______________________	
f. Why would you say you are not looking for such a job now? ______________________	
g. Do you expect to look for work within the next year?	**g.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

0 ☐ Respondent has no children under age 18 in the household – *SKIP to 33*

31. Would it be necessary for you to make any special arrangements for the care of your children, if you were to take a job?	**31.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – Why not? ______________________ 3 ☐ Don't know *SKIP to 33*

Notes

II. ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK – Continued

32a. Are there any circumstances under which you think you would want to take a job? Respondent's comments ____________	**32a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b – e* x ☐ No – *SKIP to 33*
b. What kind of work would it have to be? ____________	
c. What would the wage or salary have to be? *If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents. Otherwise round to nearest dollar.*	**c.** $ ____________ per ____________
d. Are there any restrictions, such as hours or location of job, that would be a factor in your taking a job?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 32e* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 33*
e. What are these restrictions? ____________	
33a. What do you expect to be doing five years from now – working, staying home, or something else? *If "Other," specify here* ____________	**33a.** 1 ☐ Working – *ASK 33 b – c* 2 ☐ Staying home – *SKIP to 33d* 3 ☐ Go to school, get additional training } *SKIP to 34* 4 ☐ Don't know } *SKIP to 34* 5 ☐ Other } *SKIP to 34*
b. What kind of work do you think you will be doing? ____________	
c. Do you think it will be part-time or full-time work?	**c.** 1 ☐ Part-time } *SKIP to 34* 2 ☐ Full-time } *SKIP to 34*
d. Is there any particular reason why you plan to stay at home?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes – *Specify* ____________ 2 ☐ No

III. WORK EXPERIENCE IN 1966

34a. Now I have some questions on your work experience during 1966. In how many different weeks did you work either full or part time in 1966 (not counting work around the house)? (Include paid vacations and paid sick leave.)	**34a.** Number of weeks ____________ x ☐ None – *SKIP to 36a*
b. During the weeks that you worked in 1966, how many hours per week did you usually work?	**b.** Hours ____________
CHECK ITEM D	1 ☐ 52 weeks in 34a – *ASK 35a* 2 ☐ 1 – 51 weeks in 34a – *SKIP to 35b*
35a. Did you lose any full weeks of work in 1966 because you were on layoff from a job or lost a job?	**35a.** 1 ☐ Yes – How many weeks? ________ *Adjust item 34a and SKIP to 35c* x ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item E, page 10*
b. You say you worked *(entry in 34a)* weeks in 1966. In any of the remaining *(52 weeks minus entry in 34a)* ________ weeks were you looking for work or on layoff from a job?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – How many weeks? ____________ – *ASK 35c* x ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item E, page 10*
c. Were all of these weeks in one stretch?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes, 1 } *SKIP to Check Item E, page 10* 2 ☐ No, 2 } 3 ☐ No, 3 or more }

III. WORK EXPERIENCE IN 1966 – Continued

For those who did not work in 1966 **36a.** Even though you did not work in 1966, did you spend any time trying to find work or on layoff from a job?	**36a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to c and ask about 52 weeks*
b. How many different weeks were you looking for work or on layoff from a job?	**b.** Weeks ______
c. Now let me see. During 1966 there were about *(52 weeks minus entries in items 34a and 36b)* ______ weeks that you were not working or looking for work. What would you say was the main reason that you were not looking for work?	**c.** 1 ☐ Ill or disabled and unable to work 2 ☐ Birth of child 3 ☐ Other family responsibility 4 ☐ Couldn't find work 5 ☐ Vacation 6 ☐ Did not want to work 7 ☐ Other – *Specify* ______ } *SKIP to Check Item G*
CHECK ITEM E	*Refer to items 34a and 35b* 1 ☐ All weeks accounted for – *SKIP to Check Item F* 2 ☐ Some weeks not accounted for – *ASK 37*
37. Now let me see. During 1966 there were about *(52 weeks minus entries in items 34a and 35b)* ______ weeks that you were not working or looking for work. What would you say was the main reason that you were not looking for work?	**37.** 1 ☐ Ill or disabled and unable to work 2 ☐ Birth of child 3 ☐ Other family responsibility 4 ☐ Couldn't find work 5 ☐ Vacation 6 ☐ Did not want to work 7 ☐ Other – *Specify* ______
CHECK ITEM F	1 ☐ "O" in 6d – *ASK 38a* 2 ☐ "P," "G" or "WP" in 6d – *SKIP to 38b*
38a. I see that you are self-employed. Did you work for anyone else for wages or salary in 1966?	**38a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item G*
b. In 1966, for how many employers did you work?	**b.** Number of employers ______

IV. MARITAL AND FAMILY HISTORY

CHECK ITEM G	*Refer to Household Record Card* 1 ☐ Respondent is "never married" and has children of her own in the household – *SKIP to 44* x ☐ Respondent is "never married" and has no children of her own in the household – *SKIP to Check Item H, page 12* } *Record on Reference Information Sheet* 2 ☐ All others – *ASK 39*
39. Have you been married more than once?	**39.** 1 ☐ Once – *ASK 40* 2 ☐ More than once – *Specify number* ______ – *SKIP to 41*
40a. When were you married?	**40a.** Month ______ 19______

2 ☐ Respondent currently married – *SKIP to 42*
3 ☐ All others – *ASK 40 b*
} *Record marital status and year of marriage on Reference Information Sheet*

b. When were you (widowed, divorced, separated)?	**b.** Month ______ 19 ______ – *SKIP to 42*

IV. MARITAL AND FAMILY HISTORY – Continued

41a. What was the date of your first marriage?	**41a.** Month ____________ 19 ______
b. How was it terminated?	**b.** 1 ☐ Widowed 2 ☐ Divorced
c. When was it terminated?	**c.** Month ____________ 19 ______

2 ☐ Respondent currently married – *ASK 41d*
3 ☐ All others – *SKIP to 41e*
} *Record marital status and year of respondent's first marriage on Reference Information Sheet*

d. When were you married most recently?	**d.** Month ____________ 19 ______ *SKIP to 42*
e. What are the dates of your most recent marriage?	**e.** From: Month ____________ 19 ______ To: Month ____________ 19 ______
42a. Have you ever adopted any children or did your husband have children who came to live with you when you married him?	**42a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 44*
b. How many children?	**b.** ________
43a. In what year did the first of these children come to live with you?	**43a.** 19 ______
b. How old was the child at that time?	**b.** ________
c. Of all these children, how many still live with you?	**c.** ________
44a. Have you ever given birth to any children who are not living with you now?	**44a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 46*
b. How many children?	**b.** ________
45. In what month and year was the first child born?	**45.** Month ____________ 19 ______

0 ☐ Respondent has no children – *SKIP to Check Item H, page 12*

46. If I am correct, your first child was born (you first assumed responsibility for a child) in 19______. Is that right? *Enter earliest year of birth or "acquisition" of a child from Record Card and items 43 and 45. Record year of first child's birth on Reference Information Sheet.*	**46.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Find out correct year and adjust accordingly*

Was another person present while completing Section IV?
1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Go to Check Item H, page 12*

Would you say this person influenced the respondent's answers?
1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

Notes

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966

CHECK ITEM H	*Refer to Reference Information Sheet* 1 ☐ Respondent has never worked – *SKIP to 66* Respondent has worked and: 2 ☐ (Is, has been) married – *ASK 47* 3 ☐ Has never been married and has no children of her own in the household – *SKIP to 57* 4 ☐ Has never been married and has children of her own in the household – *SKIP to 60*

EVER MARRIED RESPONDENT

47a. I'd like to ask you about the longest job you had between the time you stopped going to school full time and your (first) marriage. For whom did you work?	**47a.** x ☐ Did not work in that period 0 ☐ Married while still in school } *SKIP to 48a and then Check Item I, page 13* 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job – *ASK b and SKIP to k* 2 ☐ Other – *ASK b – l*

b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment)

____

c. What kind of business or industry was that?

____

d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, state, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county ______________ State ______________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year__________
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year__________
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* _____years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*

j. How did you happen to leave that job?

____

k. Was this the first regular full-time job you had after you stopped going to school full-time?	**k.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 48* 2 ☐ No – *ASK l*
l. In what year did you take your first regular full-time job (exclude summer vacation jobs)?	**l.** Year__________
48a. In what year did you stop going to school full-time?	**48a.** Year__________

9 ☐ No years between school and marriage – *SKIP to Check Item I, page 13*

b. Of the______years between the time you left school and your (first) marriage in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	**b.** Number________

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

CHECK ITEM I	*Refer to Reference Infomation Sheet* 1 ☐ Respondent now has or has had children – *GO to Check Item J* × ☐ Respondent has no children – *SKIP to 55*
CHECK ITEM J	*Refer to Reference Information Sheet* Respondent is in Labor Force Group B or C and the: 1 ☐ Year her last job ended was between the year of her (first) marriage and the year of her first child's birth (or the year she first assumed responsibility for a child) – *SKIP to 50* × ☐ Year her last job ended is before or is the same as the year of her (first) marriage – *SKIP to Check Item K, page 14* 2 ☐ All others – *ASK 49*

49. Between the time of your (first) marriage and the birth of your first child, (you first assumed responsibility for a child) did you ever have a job or business?	**49.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 50* × ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item K, page 14*
50a. I'd like to know about the longest job you held between the time of your (first) marriage and the birth of your first child (you first assumed responsibility for a child). For whom did you work?	**50a.** 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job } *ASK b and then SKIP to 51* 2 ☐ Same as job between school and marriage } *ASK b and then SKIP to 51* 3 ☐ Other – *ASK b – j*

b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment)

____

c. What kind of business or industry was that?

____

d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county__________ State __________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year__________
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year__________
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ______ years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*

j. How did you happen to leave that job?

____

51. Of the______years between your (first) marriage and the birth of your first child (the time you assumed responsibility for a child), in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	**51.** Number __________

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

CHECK ITEM K

Refer to Reference Information Sheet
Respondent is in Labor Force Group B or C and the:

x ☐ Year her last job ended was before her first child was born (or she first assumed responsibility for a child) – *SKIP to 65*

1 ☐ Year her last job ended was after her first child was born (or she first assumed responsibility for a child) – *ASK 52*

2 ☐ Respondent is in Labor Force Group A – *ASK 52*

52. In what month and year did you first work after your first child was born (you first assumed responsibility for a child)?	**52.** Month ______ Year ______
53a. I would like to know about the longest job you have held since 19____, the birth of your first child. For whom did you work?	**53a.** 1 ☐ Same as current (last job) 2 ☐ Same as job between school and marriage 3 ☐ Same as job between marriage and child (1–3: *ASK b, then SKIP to 54*) 4 ☐ Other – *ASK b – j*

b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment)

____

c. What kind of business or industry was that?

____

d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county ______ State ______
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year ______
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year ______
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ____years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*

j. How did you happen to leave that job?

____

54. Of the ____years since your first child was born, in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	**54.** Number ______ – *SKIP to 65*

Notes

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V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

RESPONDENT HAS NO CHILDREN

55a. I'd like to know about the longest job you have held since your (first) marriage. For whom did you work?	**55a.** x ☐ Has not worked – *SKIP to 65* 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job 2 ☐ Same as job between school and marriage } *ASK b and SKIP to 56* 3 ☐ Other – *ASK b – j*
b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment) ______________	
c. What kind of business or industry was that? ______________	
d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county ______________ State ______________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year __________
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year __________
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ______ years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*
j. How did you happen to leave that job? ______________	
56. Of the ______ years since your (first) marriage, in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	**56.** Number ______________ – *SKIP to 65*

Notes

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

NEVER MARRIED, HAS NO CHILDREN

57a. I'd like to ask you about the first job at which you worked at least six months, after you stopped going to school full-time. For whom did you work?	**57a.** 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job – *ASK b and SKIP to k* 2 ☐ Other – *ASK b – l*
b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment)	
c. What kind of business or industry was that?	
d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county ________ State ________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year ________
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year ________
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ______years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*
j. How did you happen to leave that job?	
k. Was this the first regular full-time job you had after you stopped going to school full-time?	**k.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 58* 2 ☐ No – *ASK l*
l. In what year did you take your first regular full-time job (exclude summer vacation jobs)?	**l.** Year ________

Notes

FORM LGT-301 (3-20-67)

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

58a. Now, of all the jobs you have ever had, I'd like to know about the one at which you worked the longest. For whom did you work then?	**58a.** 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job 2 ☐ Same as first job } *ASK b and SKIP to 59* 3 ☐ Other – *ASK b – j*
b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment) ____________________	
c. What kind of business or industry was that? ____________________	
d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county ____________ State ____________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year ________
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year ________
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ______years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*
j. How did you happen to leave that job? ____________________	
59a. In what year did you stop going to school full-time?	**59a.** Year ________
b. Of the______years since you left school, in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	**b.** Number ________ – *SKIP to 65*

Notes

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – *Continued*

NEVER MARRIED, HAS CHILDREN

60a. I'd like to ask you about the longest job you had between the time you stopped going to school full-time and the birth of your first child. For whom did you work?	**60a.** × ☐ Did not work in this period – *SKIP to 61a and then Check Item L, page 19* 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job – *ASK b and SKIP to k* 2 ☐ Other – *ASK b – l*
b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment) ____________	
c. What kind of business or industry was that? ____________	
d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county ____________ State ____________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year ______
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year ______
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ______ years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*
j. How did you happen to leave that job? ____________	
k. Was this the first regular full-time job you had after you stopped going to school full-time?	**k.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 61* 2 ☐ No – *ASK l*
l. In what year did you take your first regular full-time job (exclude summer vacation jobs)?	**l.** Year ______
61a. In what year did you stop going to school full-time?	**61a.** Year ______
b. Of the ______ years between the time you left school and the birth of your first child, in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	**b.** Number ______

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

CHECK ITEM L

Refer to Reference Information Sheet

Respondent is in Labor Force Group B or C and the

x ☐ Year her last job ended was before her first child was born – *SKIP to 65*

1 ☐ Year her last job ended was after her first child was born – *ASK 62*

2 ☐ Respondent is in Labor Force Group A – *ASK 62*

62. In what month and year did you first work after your first child was born?	**62.** Month ____________ year ______
63a. I'd like to know about the longest job you have held since 19______, the birth of your first child. For whom did you work?	**63a.** 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job – *ASK b and SKIP to 64* 2 ☐ Same as job between school and child – *ASK b and SKIP to 64* 3 ☐ Other – *ASK b – j*

b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment)

____

c. What kind of business or industry was that?

____

d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county ____________ State ____________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year ________
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year ________
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ______ years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*

j. How did you happen to leave that job?

____

64. Of the ______ years since you had your first child, in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	**64.** Number ________

65. Aside from any work that you have actually done, what other kinds of work can you do? – *After the respondent gives an answer, ask* "Anything else?"

(1) ____

(2) ____

(3) ____

VI. ATTITUDE TOWARD WOMEN'S ROLE

66. Now I'd like your opinion about women working. People have different ideas about whether married women should work. Here are three statements about a married woman with children between the ages of 6 and 12. *(HAND CARD TO RESPONDENT)* In each case, how do you feel about such a woman taking a full-time job outside the home: Is it definitely all right, probably all right, probably not all right, or definitely not all right?

Statements	Definitely all right	Probably all right	Probably not all right	Definitely not all right	No opinion, undecided
a. If it is absolutely necessary to make ends meet	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
b. If she wants to work and her husband agrees	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
c. If she wants to work, even if her husband does not particularly like the idea	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐

CHECK ITEM M

Refer to Reference Information Sheet

x ☐ Respondent is not currently married – *SKIP to Check Item N, page 21*

Respondent is currently married and

1 ☐ Is in Labor Force Group A or B – *ASK 67*

2 ☐ Is in Labor Force Group C – *SKIP to 68*

67. How does your husband feel about your working – does he like it very much, like it somewhat, not care either way, dislike it somewhat or dislike it very much?	**67.** 1 ☐ Like it very much 2 ☐ Like it somewhat 3 ☐ Not care either way 4 ☐ Dislike it somewhat 5 ☐ Dislike it very much } *SKIP to 69*
68. How do you think your husband would feel about your working now – would he like it very much, like it somewhat, not care either way, dislike it somewhat or dislike it very much?	**68.** 1 ☐ Like it very much 2 ☐ Like it somewhat 3 ☐ Not care either way 4 ☐ Dislike it somewhat 5 ☐ Dislike it very much
69a. Now I'd like your opinion about some homemaking activities. How do you feel about keeping house in your own home? Respondent's comments ________________ ________________	**69a.** Do you – 1 ☐ Like it very much? 2 ☐ Like it somewhat? 3 ☐ Dislike it somewhat? 4 ☐ Dislike it very much? 5 ☐ Undecided
b. How do you feel about taking care of children?	**b.** Do you – 1 ☐ Like it very much? 2 ☐ Like it somewhat? 3 ☐ Dislike it somewhat? 4 ☐ Dislike it very much? 5 ☐ Undecided
70. How do you spend most of the time when you are not doing housework or working for pay? – *After the respondent gives an answer, ask* "Anything else?" (1) ________________ (2) ________________ (3) ________________	**70.** 1 ☐ Family or housekeeping related activities 2 ☐ Other activities at home 3 ☐ Entertainment, sports, social activities away from home 4 ☐ Clubs, education, church, etc.

Was another person present while completing Section VI?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Go to Check Item N*

Would you say this person influenced the respondent's answers?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

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VII. HEALTH

CHECK ITEM N	1 ☐ Respondent is in Labor Force Group A or B – *SKIP to 71b* 2 ☐ Respondent is in Labor Force Group C – *ASK 71a*

71. Does your health or physical condition –	**71.**	
a. Keep you from working at a job for pay?	**a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 72*	2 ☐ No – *ASK b*
b. Limit the kind of work you can do?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 72*	2 ☐ No – *ASK c*
c. Limit the amount of work you can do?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 72*	2 ☐ No – *ASK d*
d. Limit the amount of housework you can do?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 72*	2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 73*

72a. *If "Yes" in any of 71a – d* – What physical or health problems do you have?

____

b. In what way are your activities limited?

____

c. How long have you been limited in this way?	**c.** Months ________	Years________
73. Would you rate your health, compared with other women of about your age, as excellent, good, fair, or poor?	**73.** 1 ☐ Excellent 2 ☐ Good	3 ☐ Fair 4 ☐ Poor

x ☐ Respondent not married – *SKIP to 76*

74. Does your husband's health or physical condition –	**74.**	
a. Keep him from working?	**a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 75*	2 ☐ No – *ASK b*
b. Limit the kind of work he can do?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 75*	2 ☐ No – *ASK c*
c. Limit the amount of work he can do?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 75*	2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 76*

75a. *If "Yes" in any of 74a – c* – What physical or health problems does he have?

____

b. In what way are his activities limited?

____

c. How long has he been limited this way?	**c.** Months ________	Years ________

x ☐ No other family members living here – *SKIP to 77*

76a. Does any other member of your family living here have a physical condition or health problem which limits his work or other activities in any way?	**76a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b – e* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 77*

b. Which family member is this? – *List line number as shown on Record Card.*

____

c. What physical or health problems does he have?

____

d. In what way are his activities limited?

____

____

e. Have his health problems influenced in any way, your decision to work or not work outside the home?	**e.** 1 ☐ Yes – In what way? ________________ ________________ 2 ☐ No – *Go to 77*

USCOMM-DC

VIII. EDUCATION AND TRAINING

77a. Now, I'd like to ask some questions about your education and specialized training. What is the highest grade (or year) of regular school you have ever attended?	**77a.** 1 Elementary 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 2 High 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 College 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6+ ☐
b. Did you finish this grade (year)?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
☐ Three or more years of college – *ASK 77c* ☐ Less than three years of college – *SKIP to 78*	
c. What was your field of study in college?	**c.** ______________________

x ☐ Never attended high school – *SKIP to 79*
1 ☐ Attended three or four years of high school – *ASK 78a*
2 ☐ All other – *SKIP to 78c*

78a. Did you take a vocational or commercial curriculum in high school?	**78a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to c*
b. What did you specialize in?	**b.** ______________________
c. In high school, did you take any courses in typing or shorthand?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK d – e* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 79*
d. What courses did you take?	**d.** 1 ☐ Typing 3 ☐ Both 2 ☐ Shorthand
e. How many years did you take (typing, shorthand)?	**e.** Typing ________ Shorthand ________

79a. Aside from regular school, did you ever take a full-time program lasting two weeks or more at a company training school?	**79a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* x ☐ No – *SKIP to 80*
b. What type of training did you take? ______________________	
c. How long did this training last?	**c.** Months ________
d. How many hours per week did you spend on this program?	**d.** 1 ☐ 1 – 4 4 ☐ 15 – 19 2 ☐ 5 – 9 5 ☐ 20 or more 3 ☐ 10 – 14
e. Did you finish or complete this program?	**e.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to g* 2 ☐ No – *ASK f* 3 ☐ Still going on – *SKIP to 80*
f. Why didn't you finish or complete this program? ______________________	
g. Do you use this training on your present (last) job?	**g.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 80* 2 ☐ No – *ASK h*
h. Have you ever used this training on a job?	**h.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

VIII. EDUCATION AND TRAINING – Continued

80a. Aside from regular school, did you ever take any technical, commercial, vocational, or skill training (not counting on–the–job training given informally)?	**80a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* × ☐ No – *SKIP to 81*
b. What type of training did you take?	
c. How long did this training last?	**c.** Months ______
d. How many hours per week did you spend on this training?	**d.** 1 ☐ 1 – 4 2 ☐ 5 – 9 3 ☐ 10 – 14 4 ☐ 15 – 19 5 ☐ 20 or more
e. Did you finish or complete this program?	**e.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to g* 2 ☐ No – *ASK f* 3 ☐ Still going on – *SKIP to 81*
f. Why didn't you complete this program?	
g. Do you use this training on your present (last) job?	**g.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 81* 2 ☐ No – *ASK h* 3 ☐ Never worked – *SKIP to 81*
h. Have you ever used this training on a job?	**h.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
81a. Since you stopped going to school full time, have you taken any additional courses, such as English, math, science, or art?	**81a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* × ☐ No – *SKIP to 82*
b. Did you take this course(s) in order to obtain a certificate, diploma or degree?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK c–d* 2 ☐ No – *ASK e–j*
c. What kind of certificate, diploma or degree is this?	
d. Did you finish or complete this course?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No 3 ☐ Still going on } *SKIP to 82*
e. What kind of course(s) did you take? – *If more than one course, obtain information for most important course.*	
f. How long did this course last?	**f.** Months ______
g. How many hours per week did you spend on this course?	**g.** 1 ☐ 1 – 4 2 ☐ 5 – 9 3 ☐ 10 – 14 4 ☐ 15 – 19 5 ☐ 20 or more
h. Did you finish or complete this course?	**h.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to j* 2 ☐ No – *ASK i* 3 ☐ Still going on – *SKIP to 82*
i. Why didn't you complete this course?	
j. Do you use this education on your present (last) job?	**j.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No 3 ☐ Never worked

VIII. EDUCATION AND TRAINING – Continued

82a. Are you planning to enroll in any type of educational or training courses in the future?	**82a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b – c* x ☐ No – *SKIP to 83*
b. What kind of course(s) are you interested in? *Specify particular type of course below.* ______ ______ ______	**b.** 1 ☐ General high school courses 2 ☐ Business or commercial school courses 3 ☐ General college courses 4 ☐ Teacher certification program 5 ☐ Graduate education 6 ☐ Refresher or brush-up courses 7 ☐ Other
c. What is your major reason for wanting to take more courses? ______	
83a. Have you ever obtained a certificate required for practicing any profession or trade such as teacher, registered nurse, practical nurse, or beautician?	**83a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 84*
b. What type of certificate was it? ______	
c. Is this certificate currently in effect?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

Notes

IX. ASSETS AND INCOME

84. Is this house (apartment) owned or being bought by you (or your husband) or is it rented? *If "Other," specify here* ______	**84.** 1 ☐ Owned or being bought 2 ☐ Rented 3 ☐ No cash rent 4 ☐ Other } *SKIP to 87*
85. In what year did you (or your husband) buy this property?	**85.** Year ______
86a. About how much do you think this property would sell for on today's market?	**86a.** $ ______ 0 ☐ None
b. How much do you (or your husband) owe on this property for mortgages, back taxes, loans, etc.? (Mortgages include deeds of trust, land contracts for deed, etc.)	**b.** $ ______ 0 ☐ None
87a. Do you (or your husband) rent, own, or have an investment in a farm?	**87a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 88*
b. What is the total market value of your farm operation? (Include value of land, building, house, if you own them, and the equipment, live stock, stored crops, and other assets. Do not include crops held under Commodity Credit Loans.)	**b.** $ ______
c. Does that include the value of this house?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
d. How much do you owe on mortgages or other debts in connection with the farm itself, the equipment, livestock, or anything else? (Do not count Commodity Credit Loans.)	**d.** $ ______ 0 ☐ None
88a. Do you (or your husband) own or have an investment in a business or professional practice?	**88a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 89*
b. What is the total market value of all assets in the business, including tools and equipment? In other words, how much do you think this business would sell for on today's market? *(Obtain value of respondent's and husband's share only.)*	**b.** $ ______ 0 ☐ None
c. What is the total amount of debts or liabilities owed by the business? *(Include all liabilities as carried on the books. Respondent's and husband's share only.)*	**c.** $ ______ 0 ☐ None
89a. Do you (or your husband) own any other real estate – not counting the property on which you are living?	**89a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 90*
b. About how much do you think this property would sell for on today's market?	**b.** $ ______ 0 ☐ None
c. How much is the unpaid amount of any mortgages on this property?	**c.** $ ______ 0 ☐ None
d. How much other debt do you have on this property, such as back taxes or assessments, unpaid amounts of home improvement loans, home repair bills, etc.?	**d.** $ ______ 0 ☐ None
90. Do you (or other members of your family living here) have any money in savings or checking accounts, savings and loan companies, or credit unions?	**90.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No

USCOMM-DC

IX. ASSETS AND INCOME – Continued

91. Do you (or any other members of your family living here) have any of the following:	**91.**
a. U.S. Savings Bonds?	**a.** 1☐ Yes – What is their face value? $______ 2☐ No
b. Stocks, bonds, or shares in mutual funds?	**b.** 1☐ Yes – What is their market value? $______ 2☐ No
c. Does anyone owe you (or any other family member living here) any money?	**c.** 1☐ Yes – How much? $______ 2☐ No
92a. Do you (or your husband) own an automobile?	**92a.** 1☐ Yes – How many? ______ *ASK b – d* 2☐ No – *SKIP to 93*
b. What is the make and year? *–If more than one, ask about newest.*	**b.** Make ______ Year ______
c. When was it purchased?	**c.** Year ______
d. Do you (or your husband) owe any money on the automobile?	**d.** 1☐ Yes – How much? $______ 2☐ No
93. Aside from any debts you have already mentioned, do you (and your husband) now owe any money to stores, doctors, hospitals, banks, or anyone else, excluding 30–day charge accounts?	**93.** 1☐ Yes – How much? $______ 2☐ No
94. Now I'd like to ask a few questions on your income in 1966	**94.**
a. In 1966, how much did you receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else? ☐ Respondent not married – *SKIP to 94c*	**a.** $______ 0☐ None
b. In 1966, how much did your husband receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else? ☐ No other family members 14 years or older – *SKIP to 95a*	**b.** $______ 0☐ None
c. In 1966, how much did all other family members living here receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else?	**c.** $______ 0☐ None
95a. In 1966, did you receive any income from working on your own or in your own business, professional practice, or partnership? Gross income ______ less expense ______ = Net ☐ No other family members 14 years or older – *SKIP to 96*	**95a.** 1☐ Yes – How much? $______ 2☐ No
b. In 1966, did any other family members living here receive any income from working on their own or in their own business, professional practice, or partnership? Gross income ______ less expense ______ = Net	**b.** 1☐ Yes – How much? $______ 2☐ No

IX. ASSETS AND INCOME – Continued

96. In 1966, did your family receive any income from operating a farm? Gross income ______ less expense ______ = Net	**96.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No

CHECK ITEM O

Make the following checks

1 ☐ Respondent worked in 1966 *(Number of weeks entered in 34a). An amount should be entered in 94a, 95a or 96.*

2 ☐ Respondent did not work in 1966 *("None" box marked in 34a). The "None" box should be marked in 94a and "No" marked in 95a and 96.*

If the questionnaire fails either of the above checks, review the matter with the respondent. If it still fails, explain the situation.

97. In addition during 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any rental income from roomers and boarders, an apartment in this house or another building, or other real estate? Gross income ______ less expense ______ = Net	**97.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
98. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive interest or dividends, on savings, stocks, bonds, or income from estates or trusts?	**98.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
99a. In 1966, did you receive any unemployment compensation? ☐ Respondent not married – *SKIP to 99c*	**99a.** 1 ☐ Yes – How many weeks? ______ How much did you receive altogether? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
b. In 1966, did your husband receive any unemployment compensation? ☐ No other family members 14 years or older – *SKIP to 100*	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – How many weeks? ______ How much did he receive altogether? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
c. In 1966, did any other family members living here receive any unemployment compensation?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No

100. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive income as a result of disability or illness such as *(read list)*:
If "Yes" to any items in list, enter amount, and indicate whether received by respondent or other family member.

	Yes	No	100. Amount	Mark one column for each amount entered: Respondent	Other family member
1. Veteran's compensation or pension?	1 ☐	2 ☐	$		
2. Workmen's compensation?	1 ☐	2 ☐	$		
3. Aid to the Permanently and Totally Disabled or Aid to the Blind?	1 ☐	2 ☐	$		
4. Social Security Disability Payments?	1 ☐	2 ☐	$		
5. Any other disability payment? – *Specify type*	1 ☐	2 ☐	$		
______			$		
______			$		
______			$		

IX. ASSETS AND INCOME – *Continued*

101. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any other Social Security payments, such as old age or survivor's insurance?	**101.** 1 ☐ Yes – Who? 1 ☐ Respondent How much? $ ________ 2 ☐ Husband How much? $ ________ 3 ☐ Other How much? $ ________ 2 ☐ No
102. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any Aid to Families with Dependent Children payments or other public assistance or welfare payments? *If "Yes"* – What type? ________________	**102.** 1 ☐ Yes → 1 ☐ AFDC How much? $ ________ 2 ☐ Other How much? $ ________ 2 ☐ No
103. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any income from participating in a program under Title V – Work Experience or Training for Unemployed Parents?	**103.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ________ 2 ☐ No
104a. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here buy any food stamps under the Government's Food Stamp Plan?	**104a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b – c* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 105*
b. In how many months did you buy stamps?	**b.** Months ________
c. How much was your monthly bonus?	**c.** $ ________
105a. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any pensions from local, State, or Federal Government? *If "Yes"* – What type? ________________	**105a.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ________ 2 ☐ No
b. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any other retirement pensions, such as private employee or personal retirement benefits? *If "Yes"* – What type? ________________	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ________ 2 ☐ No
106. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any other type of income, such as alimony, child support, contributions from family members living elsewhere, annuities, or anything else? *If "Yes"* – What type? ________________	**106.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ________ 2 ☐ No

Notes

IX. ASSETS AND INCOME – Continued

107. In 1966, did you (or your husband) purchase any of the following items?	107. Purchased?		Was it new or used?	
	Yes	No	New	Used
1. Washing machine	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
2. Clothes dryer	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
3. Electric or gas stove	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
4. Refrigerator	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
5. Freezer	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
6. Room air conditioner	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
7. Television	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
8. Garbage disposal	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
9. Hi–fi or stereo	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
10. Dishwasher	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐

108. In 1966, did you make any major expenditures on housing such as remodeling or redecorating, plumbing, electrical work, roofing, painting, or heating which cost more than $200?	**108.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
109. Aside from anything else you have mentioned, did you (or other members of your family) have any other major expenses in 1966 such as medical, dental, accident, travel, or education which cost more than $200?	**109.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

Notes

X. FAMILY BACKGROUND

110. Now I have some questions on your family background. Where were you born?	**110.** City or town ____________ State ____________ County ____________ OR ☐ Outside U.S. – *Specify country* ____________
111. For how long have you been living in this area? *(SMSA or county of CURRENT residence)?*	**111.** 1 ☐ Less than 1 year 2 ☐ 1 year or more – *Specify* ____________ 3 ☐ All my life – *SKIP to 113*
112. Where did you live before moving to . . . *(Name of SMSA or county of CURRENT residence)?*	**112.** City or town ____________ State ____________ County ____________ OR ☐ Outside U.S. – *Specify country* ____________
113a. Now I'd like to ask about your parents. Are your mother and father living?	**113a.** 1 ☐ BOTH parents alive 2 ☐ MOTHER alive, father dead 3 ☐ FATHER alive, mother dead 4 ☐ NEITHER parent alive
b. What about your husband's parents – are his mother and father living?	**b.** 1 ☐ Respondent not married 2 ☐ BOTH parents alive 3 ☐ MOTHER alive, father dead 4 ☐ FATHER alive, mother dead 5 ☐ NEITHER parent alive
114. Were your parents born in the U.S. or some other country?	**114.**
a. Father	**a.** 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________
b. Mother	**b.** 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________ *If either parent born outside U.S. – SKIP to 116*
115. In what country were your grandparents born?	**115.**
a. Father's mother	**a.** 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________
b. Father's father	**b.** 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________
c. Mother's mother	**c.** 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________
d. Mother's father	**d.** 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________
116. When you were 15 years old, were you living –	**116.** 1 ☐ On a farm or ranch? 2 ☐ In the country, not on a farm or ranch? 3 ☐ In a town or small city (under 25,000)? 4 ☐ In the suburb of a large city? 5 ☐ In a city of 25,000 – 100,000? 6 ☐ In a large city of more than 100,000?

X. FAMILY BACKGROUND – Continued

117. With whom were you living when you were 15 years old? *If 6 or 7 marked – Specify* ____________________ ____________________	**117.** 1 ☐ Father and mother 2 ☐ Father and step-mother 3 ☐ Mother and step-father 4 ☐ Father 5 ☐ Mother 6 ☐ Some other adult relative } *Specify* 7 ☐ Some other arrangement } *Specify* 8 ☐ On my own – *SKIP to 120*

118a. What kind of work was your father doing when you were 15 years old? – *If respondent did not live with father at that age, ask about the work of the head of the household where she lived at age 15.*

____

b. What was the highest grade of school completed by your father (or the head of the household where you lived at age 15)?	**b.** 00 ☐ Never attended school

1 Elementary	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐	8 ☐
2 High	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐				
3 College	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6+ ☐		

99 ☐ Don't know

119a. What kind of work was your mother doing when you were 15 years old?

____

b. What was the highest grade of school completed by your mother?	**b.** 00 ☐ Never attended school

1 Elementary	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐	8 ☐
2 High	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐				
3 College	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6+ ☐		

99 ☐ Don't know

120a. How many persons, not counting yourself are dependent upon you (and your husband) for at least one-half of their support?	**120a.** Number __________ 0 ☐ None – *SKIP to 121*
b. Do any of these dependents live somewhere else other than here at home with you? *If "Yes"* – What is their relationship to you? ____________________	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – How many? __________ 2 ☐ No
121. What is your Social Security number?	**121.** ☐☐☐ ☐☐ ☐☐☐☐

Continue with questions on page 32

Notes

Now I have a few questions about the education and work experience of the other family members living here.

				Persons 6 – 24 years old				Persons 25 years old and over		Persons 14 years old and over		
											If person worked at all in 1966	
Line number	**Name** *List below all persons living here who are related to respondent.* *Enter the line number from the Household Record Card in column 122*	**Relationship to respondent** *(Example: husband, son, daughter-in-law, brother, etc.)*	**Age** *(As of April 1, 1967)*	**Is . . . attending or enrolled in school?** *Circle Y – Yes N – No*	*If "Yes"* – **what grade (year)?** *If "No"* – **What is the highest grade (year) . . . ever attended?**	**Did . . . finish this grade (year)?**	**How much school do you think . . . is going to get?**	**What is the highest grade (year) of regular school . . . has ever attended?**	**Did . . . finish this grade (year)?**	**In 1966, how many weeks did . . . work either full or part time (not counting work around the house)?**	**In the weeks that . . . worked, how many hours did . . . usually work per week?**	**What kind of work was . . . doing in 1966?** *If more than one, record the longest*
122	123a	123b	124	125	126	127	128	129	130	131	132	133
		Respondent										
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			

134. *ASK at the completion of the interview. If more than one respondent in the household, ask for each.*
We would like to contact you again next year at this time to bring this information up to date. Would you please give me the name, address, and telephone number of two relatives or friends who will always know where you can be reached even if you move away? – *Enter information below*

Name	Relationship to respondent	Address	Telephone number
1.			
2.			

Notes

GPO : 1967 O - 258-942

REFERENCE INFORMATION SHEET

A. Labor force status

☐ Group A

☐ Group B – Last job ended 19______

☐ Group C – Last job ended 19______

B. Marital status

☐ Never married, own children in household

☐ Never married, no children of own in household

☐ Is currently married

☐ Has been married, but not currently married

C. Year of respondent's (first) **marriage: 19**______

☐ Respondent has no children

D. Year first child born (first assumed responsibility for child): **19**______

Notes